

ENGLISH GRAMMAR SIMPLIFIED

JAMES C. FERNALD

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ITS STUDY MADE EASY

BY

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PREFACE

THIS book is designed as a complete summary of English grammar. It is not of the class of small grammars that are made brief by leaving out bodily numerous important matters. Brevity is here secured by eliminating discussions and extended explanations, while retaining every important fact. The aim is *to include everything in correct English usage that is a legitimate subject of rational inquiry for practical purposes.*

The method of DIRECT STATEMENT has been followed throughout. Interesting as the philosophy of language is, school children, clerks, stenographers, business men, have not time—nor ability—to work out by “induction” the facts of English usage established during the five centuries since the death of Chaucer. The attempt to do so is but playing with the impossible. The result of that system is to give the student the feeling that grammar is guesswork—“sometimes you can guess it, and sometimes not.” So he goes on guessing through his life, and half the time guessing wrong.

The facts of correct English usage are, for the most part, as sure as the facts of the working of a watch or of a locomotive. We can do no better service for any student, young or old, than to tell him definitely what those facts are, and let him learn them once for all.

These definitely settled facts are sometimes given as “rules,” but since many persons have the feeling that a grammatical “rule” is something arbitrarily inflicted upon the language by grammarians, the author has here deemed

it preferable, in most cases, to state the accepted facts of English usage simply as facts, rather than in the form of "rules."

The facts so stated will be found to be such. They have been verified by extensive study of the best authorities, including the *New English Dictionary* of Dr. Murray, with its unrivalled store of quotations from standard English authors from the thirteenth century to the present time; *Maetzner's English Grammar*, a work of wonderful philosophical acumen, also rich in quotations from standard English authors; Goold Brown's remarkable compilation in his *Grammar of English Grammars*, and the most prominent text-books on grammar now in accredited use in the public schools. Statements which are given, seemingly off-hand, in some few lines, are always the result of careful, and often of protracted, study. The aim has been to make every statement in the highest degree *dependable*—safe to rely upon and to act upon. So constructed, it is believed that this brief work is not excelled in accuracy by the most pretentious volumes now before the public. To have such results massed in a compact and handy volume is a distinct desideratum.

The plan of the work is the simplest possible. Practical English grammar is nothing but *the correct use of English words in English sentences*, and this book undertakes to give all that, and nothing but that.

Words are grammatically ranged in classes, as Parts of Speech. Each Part of Speech is treated, so far as that is possible, by and for itself. Then the Sentence is taken up, beginning with the Simple Sentence, with full explanation of the two great divisions of Subject and Predicate. Under these heads, the uses of the Parts of Speech are shown in their order, first in the Subject, secondly in the

Predicate; as, "The Noun in the Complete Subject," etc. After the treatment of the Simple Sentence, Compound and Complex Sentences are explained as combinations of Simple Sentences. That is all. There is nothing left to do.

The simplest words that the subject will bear have been used in the statements of facts and principles, the rule being to use, wherever possible, a common in preference to a technical word.

English grammar is here taught distinctly and definitely as English, with no attempt to make it resemble the Latin, Greek, French, German, etc. The English has become a real and grand world-language, with a vast literature and a special genius of its own, and is not to be shaped to the model of any other. Throughout the work the controlling idea has been, not that the grammar is to make the language, but that the language has made the grammar. Fortunately, English can do what many other languages can not do, and in treating English grammar the English language is our sole concern.

The illustrative selections, in the various Exercises, chosen both for simplicity and beauty, are all from the best literature, every quotation thus carrying authority. Each quotation is located, both by the name of the author and of his work, that the grammatical study may help also to lead the student out to a good range of reading. Many a sentence, if learned, will come back with more than the power of a rule, to settle some disputed point, for these extracts represent grammar in action in the hands of those who know how to use it.

Errors of usage have been somewhat rarely noted, for one does not learn correct speech by studying the incorrect; but many of the most prevalent faults have been

pointed out, while the reason for the censure is distinctly stated in each case.

The Index has been prepared with especial care, to make it available *for finding things*—which is its sole purpose. Its extent shows the inclusiveness of the book. It is believed that by its use every important item in the book may be readily found. Even some duplications have been allowed, to meet the needs of minds approaching the same topic from different points of view. For instance, all verbs conjugated are listed under *Conjugations*, and also under *Verbs*, while, in addition, each verb conjugated, as *be, have, love*, etc., is separately entered in its own alphabetical place. Readiness of finding has been preferred to any minute system of cross-references. The breaking of the longer lists by paragraph-divisions will be found very helpful for the same purpose.

It is believed that in addition to its utility as a text-book for direct instruction, this work will be found of great value as a “supplementary” text-book, where some other system is used in the regular course. For individual study outside the schoolroom, there is inestimable value in a book clear enough to be studied without a teacher, and short enough to “get through with,” while yet as accurate as the most extensive works. The book is also designed to meet the constant demand, in the office, the study, or the home, for a handy volume, which may be kept literally “at hand,” by which to recover quickly some item of correct usage, or to explain it to another, or to settle readily and surely any grammatical perplexities or disputed matters as they may arise.

J. C. F.

January 25, 1916.

INTRODUCTION

GRAMMAR may be made a vast and difficult or a simple and easy study—vast and difficult if we consider it as a science—simple and easy if we treat it as an art.

The difference is like that between scientific and practical photography. To be a scientific photographer, one must know all about light, reflection, refraction, diffraction, the colors of the spectrum and their different wavelengths; all about lenses, convex, concave, plano-convex, plano-concave, achromatic, etc., and all about the different materials, as crown-glass, flint-glass, etc., of which lenses may be made; all about chemistry, so far as it is connected with the fixing of images by means of light. Thinking of all this, you would say at once that no ordinary person could ever be a photographer. But to be a practical photographer all this is not necessary. One needs only to buy a good camera, learn how to use it, and take good pictures all his life.

Practical English grammar is as manageable as practical photography. It is only the art of using a language-apparatus, which is ready-made, and which is almost as simple as it could be made. Theory and science are good for those who have time for them. For others—and they are the vast majority—it is only necessary to know what to do with the various parts of our language-apparatus, in order to speak and write correctly. The grammar they need is a set of instructions how to do this. This work undertakes to give these practical instructions in the least possible space.

But grammar can not be taught or learned on the basis of the little girl's remark, "Isn't it wonderful that you can talk without thinking?" That grammar requires thinking is one of its chief recommendations. Its study is a mental exercise. The object of this book is not to save one from thinking, but to help one to think; to make it as easy as possible *to think correctly in the use of language.*

WHAT IS GRAMMAR

Grammar is the treatment of connected words as used for the expression of thought.

Grammar is not needed for disconnected words; as, *mend, is, late, it, to, never, too.* But grammar may apply to these same words, if they are *connected*, so as to express a thought; as, *It is never too late to mend.*

Grammar teaches us how to connect words so as to express thought without confusion or error. It has two main divisions:

- I. The Parts of Speech;
- II. The Sentence.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

A Part of Speech is a class or group of words associated according to their use in expressing thought. A single word belonging to any one of these classes is often likewise called a Part of Speech.

There are eight Parts of Speech, under which all the words of a language may be arranged.

The Parts of Speech are the following:*

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------|
| I. Noun. | V. Adverb. |
| II. Pronoun. | VI. Preposition. |
| III. Adjective. | VII. Conjunction. |
| IV. Verb. | VIII. Interjection. |

* NOTE.—It is worth while, tho not absolutely necessary, to learn the list of the Parts of Speech in their order, as above given. This will take but a few moments, and one can then recall them at any time without needing to look them up in the book.

Some one may ask, "Why do we need Parts of Speech? The word "man," if we call it a *noun*, means just what it did before. Is it not a mere complication to call "man" a *noun*, when we know what it means without that?"

Well, go into any workshop, and see the saws in one compartment, the chisels in another, planes in another, etc. Is it of any use to have names for them? Why not let a workman say, "I want a long, thin blade, with cutting teeth on one edge, set in a handle?" Is it not better for him to be able to say, "Bring me a *saw*," and have the next man know what he means?

So in language, it is an advantage to have all words arranged in *classes* (which we call Parts of Speech), and to have a name for each *class*. Then we do not have to define the words one by one. That belongs to the dictionary. In *grammar* we only need to know what *class* (Part of Speech) a word belongs to; then grammar will tell us what to do with it, whatever the word means. *Man, horse, elephant, tiger, zebra*, and thousands of other words will be treated by *grammar* just alike, because they are all *nouns*.

That is what *grammar* is for: not to tell us what words mean, but *how to use them* in connection with other words, in what we call sentences.

Thus *grammar* wonderfully simplifies language. There are more than 400,000 words in the English language, but *grammar* does not bother with that; it arranges all those words in *classes* (Parts of Speech)—and there are just *eight classes*.

Learn the eight Parts of Speech, and what to do with them in sentences. Then, if you get along with a few words, you will use those few correctly. Or, however many words you may ever learn, you can use them all correctly according to the same simple rules. (See PARTS OF SPEECH, as fully explained under NOUN, PRONOUN, etc., in PART I., pp. 3-153.)

THE SENTENCE

A sentence is a combination of words expressing a complete thought; as Henry runs; Fishes swim; Birds fly; He came.

The sentence consists of two parts:

1. What is spoken about. This is called the *Subject*.

2. What is said about it. This is called the *Predicate*.

Thus, in the sentence, "Henry runs," "Henry" is the name of the person spoken about, and "runs" tells what is said about him; "Henry" is the *subject* and "runs" is the *predicate*.

More words may be added to the subject or the predicate; as, "Little Henry runs fast," or "Our little Henry runs very fast." Here the group of words, "Little Henry" or "Our little Henry," is called the *subject*. This group of words we call the *Complete Subject*. The group of words, "runs fast" or "runs very fast," is called the *predicate*. This group of words we call the *Complete Predicate*.

The one noun "Henry," which is the gist or essence of the subject, we call the *Essential Subject*; and the one verb, "runs," which is the gist or essence of the predicate, we call the *Essential Predicate*.

Any sentence which (like those above considered) contains but one essential subject and one essential predicate, is called a *simple sentence*.

The *Essential Subject* must be a noun or pronoun, or its equivalent.

When we say "its equivalent," we mean that sometimes an adjective or other part of speech may be *used as a noun*—or a whole group of words may be *used as a noun*—and will then be the essential subject; as, The *rich* are not always happy; *To form a correct plan* is the first step toward success. In the first sentence, "rich" is an adjective used as a noun; in the second sentence, the whole phrase, "To form a correct plan" is used as a noun. Such an adjective or phrase, used like a noun, may be the essential subject of a sentence, but the subject is ordinarily a noun or a pronoun simply.

The *Essential Predicate* must be a verb.

Verb, as here used, means what is called a "finite verb," that is, a verb of the form that can agree with a subject—

not a form like "to run," or "to be" (called the *infinitive*)—and *not* a form like "running," "being" (called the *participle*). (See pp. 82 (5) ; 88.)

The verb that forms the essential predicate is often called the "predicate verb."

The essential subject of the *sentence* is also the subject of the *predicate verb*. Thus, in the simple sentence given above, "Henry runs," "Henry" is the essential subject of the sentence, and is also the subject of the predicate verb "runs." What is true of such a simple sentence is true also of the most complicated.

Thus two words may make a sentence—a noun or pronoun and a verb. Similarly we may say, "Time flies," "He came," etc. In the first sentence, "Time" is the essential subject and also the complete subject; and "flies" is the essential predicate, and also the complete predicate. In the second sentence "He" is the essential subject and also the complete subject; and "came" is the essential predicate and also the complete predicate.

When more words are added, all the words grouped around the *essential subject* form the *complete subject*, and all the words grouped around the *essential predicate* form the *complete predicate*.

THE SENTENCE NOT A DARK MYSTERY

Hence, to understand or to form a sentence, it is only necessary to make clear to the mind what is the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate*; then to settle what other words may be joined to the *essential subject* to form the *complete subject*, and what may be joined to the *essential predicate* to form the *complete predicate*. If we settle these items correctly, we can not go astray.

Two or more simple sentences may be combined to form a longer sentence, which is called *compound* or *complex*,

according to its construction; as, "The sun has risen|| and the birds are singing"; "He was not at home||when I called."

Such combined sentences will be fully explained under COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES, Pt. II, pp. 224-235.

The Sentence is the frame in which the Parts of Speech are set.

Grammar Not Abstruse or Difficult.—Grammar is a very easy study if we go at it in the right way. We have only to understand the eight Parts of Speech, and what to do with them in the Sentence. All that we may ever have to speak, write, or read, even in thousands of words, will be but some varying arrangement of these eight Parts of Speech in Sentences.

We will next proceed to study these Parts of Speech separately, one by one, in PART I; then the construction of Sentences in PART II.

PARSING

The word *parse* is from the Latin *pars*, part, and refers primarily to describing a word as a *part* of speech.

To *parse a word* is to tell what part of speech it is, and what are its properties, and its relations to other words.

We may also *parse a sentence* by separating it into its elements, and telling the properties and relations of each word it contains.

The old technical style of *parsing*, which required the giving of all particulars about every word in a sentence, is now little used, as it was found often to confuse the mind amid a multitude of petty details. Present grammatical teaching seeks only the simplest statement that will adequately explain the form or use of any word and its relation to other words with which it is connected.

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PART I
THE PARTS OF SPEECH

THE NOUN

A Noun is the name of an object or idea.

Every word expresses *some* idea, as the verb expresses an idea of action, or the conjunction expresses an idea of connection; but the noun alone *names* its idea, and stands for it as its symbol in speech. The noun is the name-word.

Nouns form the solid substance, or, we might say, the backbone of language. Scholars have disputed which part of speech primitive man used first—a dispute which can never be settled because primitive man left no records. But it is certain that all children now begin with nouns, *Papa, Mamma*—or some equivalent names for the two persons they know best—*water, milk, bread, candy*, etc. Also, it is wonderful how far one can go in a foreign language with nouns only. If he can say *breakfast, dinner, bread, butter, water, milk, tea, coffee, room, bed, chair, table, horse, carriage, railroad*, etc., he can subsist while he is learning adjectives, verbs, and other words. An adequate supply of nouns is the foundation for all the rest.

CLASSES OF NOUNS

The chief division of nouns is into the two classes, Common and Proper.

A **Common Noun** is the name of any one of a class or group of objects; as, *man, boy, girl, house, river, tree*.

A **Proper Noun** is the name of a single object (or sometimes of a single group of objects); as, *God, the Deity, Galileo, Baltimore, the Potomac, the Romans, the Alps, Boston, New York, Chicago, Washington*.

A proper noun always begins with a capital letter; a common noun never begins with a capital, unless it is the first word in a sentence or in some other way especially prominent.

There is but one other class that need be mentioned here, namely:

Collective Nouns or Collectives.—A collective noun is a noun singular in number but denoting a class or group of objects; as, *class, family, congregation, flock, number, multitude*. The only reason for noting these as forming a separate class is that a *collective noun* may take sometimes a singular and sometimes a plural verb, according to the meaning to be expressed, as will be explained later (p. 208, B, 1).

Various other classes of nouns are named in many grammars; as, *abstract, concrete, diminutive*, etc. But these are of no importance grammatically, and their enumeration serves only to perplex the student and burden the memory. They are not therefore here considered.

CORRESPONDENCE OF COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS

As every individual object does belong to some class, every proper noun has some common noun corresponding to it, indicating the class to which the object designated by the proper noun belongs; as, Boston — city; Mississippi — river; Virginia — state; Atlantic — ocean; George — man or boy. Thus, the chief *river* (common noun) of South America is the *Amazon* (proper noun).

EXERCISE

Give the common noun corresponding to each of the following proper nouns.

(1) Chicago; (2) Wisconsin; (3) St. Helena; (4) Gibraltar; (5) Mediterranean; (6) Volga; (7) Germany; (8) Caspian; (9) Himalaya; (10) Hongkong; (11) Borneo; (12) Rhine; (13) Vesuvius; (14) St. Lawrence.

INFLECTION AND DECLENSION

[These terms may here be defined, as occasionally employed, tho their use in English grammar is very limited.]

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to denote gender, person, number, case, comparison, voice, mode, tense, etc.; as, *foxes* from *fox*, *greater* from *great*, *did* from *do*, etc. To *inflect* a word is to make some such change. An inflected form of a word is often itself called an *inflection*.

Declension.—The *inflection* of nouns or pronouns is called *declension*. An orderly arrangement of the forms of a noun or pronoun, by gender, person, number, and case, is also called the *declension* of that word.

The changes of form in an English noun are so few as to make it scarcely worth while to arrange them in the order of *declension*. For the few examples of true *declension* now remaining in the English language, see PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 27.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS

Nouns have certain qualities or characteristics commonly called **Properties**.

The *Properties* of nouns are four: *gender*, *person*, *number*, and *case*.

Of these properties, *gender*, *person*, and *case* (except the possessive case) are of small importance, but should be understood, and hence briefly treated. *Number* (as *singular* or *plural*) and the *possessive case* require fuller treatment, as much depends upon them.

GENDER

Gender, in the English language, is a distinction of certain words according as they indicate sex* or the lack of it.

Gender, in English, belongs *only to nouns and pronouns*. No other words have any distinctions of gender.

There are in English three genders, *masculine, feminine, and neuter*.

Masculine Gender.—All nouns denoting beings of the male sex are masculine in gender.

Feminine Gender.—All nouns denoting objects of the female sex are feminine in gender.

Neuter Gender.—All nouns denoting objects of no sex are neuter in gender.

English stands entirely alone in making gender a rational and intelligible distinction; males are masculine; females feminine; and inanimate things neuter.

RAMSAY *English Language and English Grammar*, pt. ii, ch. ii, p. 231.

Indeterminate or Common Gender.—Many nouns that denote living beings give no indication of gender, as *parent, child, friend*, etc.

Thus, *animal* is of indeterminate or common gender. We know that it is *not neuter*, since it denotes a living being, and that is all we do know about it as regards gender. The *animal* may be either male or female; hence the noun is said to be of *indeterminate or common gender*.

* NOTE.—Gender must be carefully distinguished from sex. Sex is a natural distinction of living beings. Gender is a grammatical distinction of words. There are but two sexes, male and female. But since both male and female may be distinguished from things without life that have no sex, there may be, as in English, three genders—the *masculine gender* for words denoting male beings, the *feminine gender* for words denoting female beings, and the *neuter gender* (*neuter* meaning “neither”) for words denoting inanimate objects, which are neither male nor female.

The vast majority of English nouns denoting living beings are thus indeterminate in gender, and are ordinarily said to be of *common gender*.*

Indications of Gender in Nouns

The few nouns in English that indicate gender do so in one of three ways:

1. By unrelated words, whose gender is known only by their meaning. These are commonly associated as far as possible in pairs. Thus:

<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
bachelor	spinster	lord	lady
boy	girl	man	woman
brother	sister	master	mistress
bull	cow	monk	nun
cock	hen	nephew	niece
drake	duck	ram	ewe
father	mother	sir	madam
gander	goose	son	daughter
husband	wife	stag	hind
king	queen	uncle	aunt

To the list above given many other words might be added.

Certain other masculines and feminines exist, having no word of the corresponding gender with which they may be paired; as:

Masculines: *Boor, clown, knight, satyr, squire.*

Feminines: *Amazon, dance, dowager, virago.*

* NOTE.—Thus we have a multitude of such familiar nouns as *acquaintance, advocate, amanuensis, assailant, assistant, associate, attorney, citizen, clerk, companion, comrade, cousin, enemy, foe, friend, historian, interpreter, lunatic, maniac, martyr, monarch, nurse, patient, person, physician, relation, relative, reporter, secretary, sovereign, witness*; practically all nouns in *er*, as *buyer, doer, driver, giver, hearer, intruder, invader, interviewer, reader, receiver, singer, speaker, stenographer, stranger, traveler, voyager, worshiper, writer*; all nouns in *ist*, as *antagonist, artist, chemist, copyist, geologist, pianist, psychologist, zoologist*; most nouns in *or*, as *author, contractor, counselor, doctor, editor, orator, visitor*; most names of animals, as *ape, bear, beaver, bird, butterfly, elephant, monkey, mule, ostrich, robin, shark, swallow*, and innumerable others. It will be seen that the English language, for the most part, disregards gender in nouns.

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Of the words above listed, *mistress* was originally the feminine of *master*, and *woman* is a derivative of *man* (being from the Anglo-Saxon *wif*, wife, and *man*, man), but these words are not now ordinarily thought of as connected. The words in the other pairs are wholly independent in form; as, *brother—sister*, *father—mother*, etc. *Wife* is not a feminine form of *husband*, nor *daughter* of *son*, nor *girl* of *boy*. In each case the different word indicates a different being. In the special cases thus listed, we know by the meaning that the different words denote beings of different sexes, and hence the corresponding words of each pair are of different genders.

2. Gender is sometimes denoted by prefixing to the noun whose gender is to be indicated a noun or pronoun whose gender is known; as, *he-goat*, *she-wolf*, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*, etc.

This is also a native English usage, and is very old, but is fast going out. Modern speakers and writers prefer to use instead of such prefixes a descriptive adjective, *male* or *female*; as, a *male* zebra, a *female* elephant. *Man-servant* and *maid-servant* are still in use, but the Scriptural terms "man-child" and "woman-child" are practically obsolete.

3. Certain endings of foreign origin are used to denote gender; as, *ess*, *ine*, and *trix*. These suffixes often involve some change in the form of the words to which they are added.

These are almost the only instances of true gender-forms in English, and as the suffixes themselves are of foreign origin, so the words to which they are added are, with rare exceptions, words derived from the French, Latin, or Greek.

The chief nouns so modified are the following:

<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
abbot	abbess	lion	lioness
actor	actress	marquis	marchioness
adventurer	adventuress	master	mistress

<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
baron	baroness	murderer	murderess
benefactor	benefactress	prior	prioress
count	countess*	prophet	prophetess
duke	duchess	protector	protectress
emperor	empress	tiger	tigress
enchanter	enchantress	traitor	traitress
governor	governess	administrator	administratrix
host	hostess	executor	executrix
hunter	huntress	testator	testatrix
Jew	Jewess	hero	heroine

REMARKS

While these forms seem somewhat numerous as listed, they are not so in ordinary use. One might go through a long life without having occasion to use the words *administratrix*, *executrix*, or *testatrix*, etc. There is a strong tendency to the disuse of all feminine endings in *ess*. It is not now good form to say or write *authoress*, *poetess*, nor *songstress*. We refer to the woman, like the man, as *author*, *poet*, *singer*, etc. We even speak of a woman as the *chairman* of a meeting, or as a *postmaster* in the United States mail service.

Gender in English nouns is of no practical use, except in connection with pronouns of the third person (see PERSONAL PRONOUNS, pp. 27-28). Hence, we need give it little attention.

I may say, *The good BOY* will study; or, *The good GIRL* will study; or, *The good GROUND* will be fruitful; and the *gender* of the noun in each case makes no difference in the use of any other word in the sentence.

This is one of the great advantages of the English language, making the learning and use of English far

* NOTE.—*Countess* is the feminine of *count* only in foreign titles. The English *countess* is the wife or widow of an *earl*.

more simple than that of languages in which both articles and adjectives have gender-forms, requiring one to know the gender of every noun before he can speak or write properly. That is never necessary in English.

PERSON

Person, in grammar, denotes a relation of words by which they indicate an object or objects, as speaking, spoken to, or spoken of.

Person, in grammar, belongs only to nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

There are, in grammar, three persons, as follows:

First Person.—The object or objects speaking;

Second Person.—The object or objects spoken to;

Third Person.—The object or objects spoken of.

The form of the English noun is the same in all persons. The person is known only by the connection of words and the thought to be expressed.

EXAMPLES

First Person.—I, John, tell the truth;*

Second Person.—John, tell the truth;

Third Person.—John tells the truth.

To know the person of an English noun, we have simply to inquire whether it indicates who or what is speaking, or spoken to, or spoken of. Pronouns and verbs help to indicate this, as will be explained under PRONOUN, pp. 29-31; VERB, p. 87.

* NOTE.—An English noun is never used in the *first person singular*, except when in apposition with the pronoun *I*, in which case the pronoun *I* is the subject of the verb. If "I" were here omitted, "John" would be in the *second person*, as in the second example. See, also, p. 29, II (2).

Personification in Nouns

Personification is a figure of speech by which things without life are introduced as speaking, or are spoken of or to, as if they were persons. Thus:

What ailed thee, O thou *sea*, that thou fleddest? thou, *Jordan*, that thou wast driven back?—*Ps.* 114: 5.

Here the *sea* and the river *Jordan* are spoken to as if they could hear and understand; hence these nouns are in the *second person* by personification.

The *mountains* and *hills* shall break forth before you into singing, and all the *trees* of the field shall clap their hands.—*Isa.* 55: 12.

Here *mountains*, *hills*, and *trees* are spoken of as if persons able to "sing" and "clap their hands"—an instance of striking poetic imagery; but grammatically these nouns are still in the *third person*, as nouns denoting things without life usually are.

Nouns denoting inanimate objects, when thus personified, may be treated as of *masculine* or *feminine gender*, and referred to by *he* or *she*, *his*, *her*, etc. (See PERSONIFICATION IN PRONOUNS, p. 29.)

EXERCISE

Tell the gender and person of each noun in the following extracts:

The character, the counsels, and the example of our Washington—they will guide us through the doubts and difficulties that beset us.—EDWARD EVERETT *Washington Abroad and at Home*.

Now came still evening on; and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad;
Silence accompanied; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests,
Were slunk, all but the wakeful nightingale.

MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. iv, l. 598.

Thou villain base,
Know'st me not by my clothes?

SHAKESPEARE *Cymbeline*, act iv, sc. 2.

I, Themistocles, have come to you.—*Translation*.

Sweet babe, in thy face
Soft desires I can trace,
Secret joys and secret smiles,
Little pretty infant wiles.

BLAKE *A Cradle Song.*

O rose, the sweetest blossom,
Of spring the fairest flower,—

PERCIVAL *Anacreontic, st. 2.*

I, Paul, have written it with my own hand.—*Philemon* 19.

That ye may be mindful of the commandment of us, the apostles.—2 *Peter* 3:2.

Lo, sifted through the winds that blow,
Down comes the soft and silent snow,
White petals from the flowers that grow
In the cold atmosphere.

BUNGAY *The Artists of the Air.*

Young Oak! when I planted thee deep in the ground,
I hoped that thy days would be longer than mine;
That thy dark-waving branches would flourish around,
And ivy thy trunk with its mantle entwine.

BYRON *To an Oak at Newstead.*

For I, the Lord thy God, will hold thy right hand, saying unto thee, Fear not; I will help thee.—*Isa.* 41:13.

NUMBER

Number is that property of certain words by which they indicate whether one object is meant, or more than one.

Number, in the English language, belongs only to nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

There are in English two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*. The singular number is used to denote one object; the plural, to denote more than one.

The plurals of English nouns are formed (1) **regularly** and (2) **irregularly**.

Regular Plurals

RULE.—English nouns regularly form their plurals by adding *s* or *es* to the singular.

This rule is so universal that when there is nothing to indicate the contrary, the plural of an English noun may be instantly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, and this will be right in thousands upon thousands of cases.

[The exceptions to this rule, which are few in number, and mostly in words derived from foreign languages, are noted on pp. 14-15.]

Choice of s or es

Plurals that add *s* only.—When a noun ends in a letter whose sound will readily unite or coalesce with the sound of *s*, *s* is added to form the plural; as, *boy, boys; hat, hats; book, books; top, tops; time, times; engine, engines.*

Plurals that add *es*.—When a noun ends in a letter whose sound will not readily unite or coalesce with the sound of *s*, *es* is added for the sake of euphony, or agreeableness of sound; as, *fox, foxes; church, churches; bush, bushes* (the *es* forming a separate syllable).

Nouns that Form Plurals in es Classified

The nouns that form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular may be grouped in the following classes:

(1) **Nouns ending in *ch*** (soft, that is *ch* as in *church*), *s, sh, x, or z*.—In these nouns the *es* forms a separate syllable; as, *box, boxes; bush, bushes; church, churches; fox, foxes; gas, gases; match, matches.*

(2) **Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*.**—Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change *f* to *v* in the plural and add *es*, the *es* or *ves* not forming a separate syllable; as *beef, beeves; calf, calves; elf, elves; half, halves; knife, knives; leaf, leaves; life, lives; loaf, loaves; self, selves; sheaf, sheaves; shelf, shelves; thief,*

thieves; wife, wives; wolf, wolves. *Staff* has an old plural, *staves*, but *staffs* is now more common. *Wharf* forms its plural either in *wharves* or *wharfs*, the latter being now somewhat more frequent.

Other nouns in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by adding *s* only; as *chief, chiefs; safe, safes; strife, strifes*.

(3) **Nouns ending in o.**—Some nouns ending in *o* add *es*, chiefly those that have been long in the language, and have become familiar English words; as, *calico, calicoes; cargo, cargoes; echo, echoes; grotto, grottoes; hero, heroes; negro, negroes; potato, potatoes; tomato, tomatoes; torpedo, torpedoes; veto, vetoes; volcano, volcanoes*.

More recent words ending in *o* commonly form their plurals by simply adding *s*; as, *albino, albinos; cameo, cameos; canto, cantos; embryo, embryos; folio, folios; halo, halos; piano, pianos; soprano, sopranos; studio, studios*.

For this difference in treatment, no certain rule can, however, be given. Forms not included in the lists above given must be learned one by one from a good dictionary.

(4) **Nouns ending in y.**—Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i*, and add *es* to form the plural; as *berry, berries; body, bodies; daisy, daisies; fancy, fancies; folly, follies; lady, ladies; lily, lilies*.

[In this respect *qu* is treated as a consonant combination, equivalent to *kw*; as, *colloquy, colloquies; soliloquy, soliloquies*.]

Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, add *s* only to form the plural, and do not change the *y*; as, *boy, boys; chimney, chimneys; donkey, donkeys; key, keys; valley, valleys; volley, volleys*.

A memory line may be, "y preceded by a vowel, plural adds *s* only; y preceded by a consonant, plural ending, *ies*."

Irregular Plurals

1. **Plurals in en.**—These are: *brother, brethren* (also *brothers*; see p. 15); *child, children; ox, oxen*.

2. **Plurals by Vowel Change.**—These are: *dormouse, dormice; foot, feet; goose, geese; louse, lice; man, men; mouse, mice; tooth, teeth; woman, women*.

3. Foreign Plurals.—Nouns derived from foreign languages sometimes retain the foreign plural, and sometimes form the plural regularly as English words; as, *formula, formulæ, stratum, strata*.

Nouns Unchanged in the Plural

Some nouns, especially certain names of animals, are the same in both singular and plural; as, *cod, deer, fish, grouse, sheep, salmon, swine, trout*. (For the plural of *fish* see also under DOUBLE PLURALS, p. 16.)

REMARKS

Certain words denoting a quantity, measure, weight, or the like, are used in the singular after a numeral; as, *brace, couple, dozen, gross, head, pair, score, yoke*. Thus we may say, "Three *dozen* eggs"; "Five *pair* of shoes"; "Twenty *head* of cattle"; "Four *yoke* of oxen." *Sail*, when used to denote a ship, may retain the same form in the plural, as denoting ships; as, "a fleet of twenty *sail*." This usage is now but a remnant of an older style. The number of words so used is much less than formerly, and tends to diminish; three *pairs* of shoes would by very many persons be preferred to "three *pair*."

Double Plurals

Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural with a difference in meaning. Thus:

bandit	bandits (individuals); banditti (an organized or collective force);
brother	brothers (of the same family); brethren (of the same society);
cannon	cannons (separate pieces of artillery); cannon (a quantity considered collectively);
die	dies (stamps for coining, etc.); dice (small cubes used in games);

fish	fishes (counted one by one); fish (considered by quantity, species, or the like);
genius	geniuses (men of genius); genii (spirits);
heathen	heathens (individual persons); heathen (heathen people collectively);
index	indexes (tables of items); indices (mathematical signs, etc.);
memorandum	memoranda (items noted down); memorandums (separate lists of items);
penny	pennies (pieces of money); pence (quantity or value).

Plurals Treated as Singulars

Some nouns plural in form are singular in meaning and use; as, *means*, *news*, *mathematics*, *politics*. We say, "The latest *news* is——"; "*Mathematics* is a hard study." *Means* is singular when referring to one thing or method, plural when referring to more than one; as, "THIS is the only *means*"; "All other *means* HAVE FAILED."

A noun plural in form is treated as singular when it denotes a collection, group, or amount; as, "THAT *hundred dollars* is here."

EXERCISE

Give the number of each noun in the following extracts; give the plural of every noun that is here found in the singular, and the singular of every noun that is found in the plural; also the rule for the formation of all plurals here used.

Tho men determine, the gods do dispose.

GREEN *Perimedes*.

See the mountains kiss high heaven,
And the waves clasp one another.

SHELLEY *Love's Philosophy*.

I read
Of that glad year that once had been,
In those fallen leaves which kept their green,
The noble letters of the dead:
And strangely on the silence broke
The silent-speaking words.

TENNYSON *In Memoriam*, pt. xcv.

There let the pealing organ blow
To the full-voiced choir below,
In service high and anthems clear,
As may with sweetness through mine ear
Dissolve me into ecstasies,
And bring all heaven before mine eyes.

MILTON *Il Penseroso*, l. 161.

No shade, no shine, no butterflies, no bees,
No fruits, no flowers, no leaves, no birds,
November! Hoop November.

No sadder proof can be given by a man of his own littleness than disbelief in great men.

CARLYLE *Heroes and Hero Worship*, lect. 1.

Then take me on your knee, mother,
And listen, mother mine,
A hundred fairies danced last night,
And the harpers they were nine.

MARY HOWITT *The Fairies of the Caldron Low*, st. 5.

Of a truth men are mystically united; a mystic bond of brotherhood makes all men one.

CARLYLE *Essays*.—Goethe's *Works*.

The secrets of life are not shown except to sympathy and likeness. EMERSON *Representative Men.—Montaigne.*

Thought can wing its way
Swifter than lightning-flashes or the beam
That hastens on the pinions of the morn.

PERCIVAL *Sonnet.*

A breeze came wandering from the sky,
Light as the whispers of a dream.

BRYANT *The Wind and Stream.*

CASE

Case, in English grammar, denotes a relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

There are in English *three cases*, which are named as follows:

The **Nominative Case** (denoting) The person or thing *acting*;

The **Possessive Case** (denoting) The person or thing *possessing*;

The **Objective Case** (denoting) The person or thing *acted upon*.

The person or thing *acted upon* is often called the *object* of the action, whence the *case* denoting that is called the *objective case*, that is, the *case* of the *object*.

Case, in English, belongs only to *nouns* and *pronouns*.

Case, in English nouns involves no change of form except in the *possessive*.

The Nominative and Objective Cases

Whether a noun is in the **nominative** or the **objective case** can be known only by the connection of thought, and this is commonly indicated *by the order of the words*. The *nominative* ordinarily *precedes*, and the *objective* ordinarily *follows its verb*. Thus, "*Cromwell* conquered *Charles*"; in this sentence we at once understand that "*Cromwell*" was the conqueror and "*Charles*" the conquered. If we were to reverse the order, and say "*Charles* conquered *Cromwell*," we should exactly reverse the meaning, and make "*Charles*" the conqueror and "*Cromwell*" the conquered—which would not be true. Reversing the order of the words would reverse the truth of history. In the sentence as first given, "*Cromwell*" is

the actor, the subject of the verb, and so in the *nominative case*; at the same time "Charles" is the object of the action, the object of the verb, and so in the *objective case*.

The object of a preposition, as *at*, *in*, *of*, etc.—which is ordinarily the noun (or pronoun) directly following the preposition (see PREPOSITION, p. 139)—is in the *objective case*.

Wherever found, the *nominative* and the *objective case* can be distinguished from each other only by the *connection of thought*, which is usually indicated by *the order of words*, in the sentence. (Compare PART II, p. 196.)

The terms *Nominative Case* and *Objective Case* are simply convenient labels, by which, to keep clearly before the mind the relations of nouns to other words, when once ascertained. If we have found a certain noun to be in the *objective case*, for instance, we know that we can not make that same noun the subject of any verb in that same sentence. See RULES OF CASE IN NOUNS, III (2), p. 22.

The Possessive Case

RULE.—The **Possessive Case** of a noun is denoted by its ending in *s* with the apostrophe ('), the apostrophe preceding the *s* in the singular, and following the *s* in the plural.

The few and rare exceptions to this rule will be hereafter noted.

In the singular number, the possessive case is formed by adding 's to the nominative singular; as, boy, *boy's*; horse, *horse's*; sailor, *sailor's*.

(The apostrophe takes the place of an omitted letter, the old English having formed the *possessive* by the ending *es*, *is* or *ys*.)

In the plural number, the possessive case is formed by simply adding the apostrophe to the final *s*, when, as is usual, the plural ends in *s* or *es*; as boys, *boys'*; horses, *horses'*; sailors, *sailors'*.

EXCEPTIONS

(1) In some few instances, the *s* of the *possessive singular* is omitted, and the apostrophe only is added; especially:

(a) When the singular of the noun ends in a hissing sound, while the following word also begins with a hissing sound; as "*for conscience' sake*"; "*for Jesus' sake*."

(b) When the singular is a word of many syllables, so that the added syllable with *s* would have a disagreeable effect; as "*Themistocles' services to the Athenians*." "*Themistocles's services*" would be possible, but harsh and objectionable in sound.

(c) When the singular ending is *s* in a word of but one or two syllables, no exception is commonly made. Thus we say "*Jones's woods*"; "*Dickens's novels*."

(2) The few nouns whose plurals do not end in *s* or *es* (as those forming plurals in *en*) form the possessive plural by adding *'s* to the plural form; as, "*the men's meetings*"; "*the children's shoes*"; "*the oxen's feet*."

Possessives of Compounds.—The *possessive* of a compound word is formed by adding *'s* at the end of the entire word; as, *my father-in-law's house*.

Possessives of Groups of Words.—Names of firms, or societies, or other groups of closely associated words, form the *possessive* by adding *'s* at the end of the whole expression; as *Liddel and Scott's Lexicon*; *American Tract Society's publications*.

If the associated names indicate joint possession, the sign of the *possessive* is added only at the end of the last name; as *Lincoln and Seward's correspondence*—that is, a collection of letters that passed between Lincoln and Seward. If separate possession is indicated, the sign of the *possessive* follows each name; as, *Lincoln's and Seward's correspondence*—that is, a collection of Lincoln's letters, and also one of Seward's, to or from any person or persons whatever.

An Equivalent for the Possessive.—The possessive case of any noun is exactly equivalent to the phrase formed by the preposition *of*; as, "*Tennyson's poems*," or "*The poems of Tennyson*."

A Double Possessive.—Sometimes the form in 's and the form with *of* are combined, making a double possessive. Thus we say, "That check *of Thompson's*," where "That *Thompson's* check" would be awkward, and "That check *of Thompson*" would seem rather flat. We prefer the *possessive* at the end of the phrase, even tho it combines two forms, and this mode of expression has become an accepted English idiom.

*Rules of Case in Nouns**

I. The Nominative Case

(1) A noun which is the subject of a finite verb (p. 84), or of a sentence, is in the nominative case; as, "The *sun* shines." This is called the Subject Nominative.

(2) A noun in the predicate, corresponding to the subject, and expressing the same meaning as the subject, or explaining or adding to the meaning of the subject, is in the nominative case; as, "Grant was a great *general*." This is called the Predicate Nominative.†

(3) A noun attached to the subject by way of explanation, emphasis, or the like, is in the nominative case by apposition (see IV); as, "The chief, an old *man*, arose." This may be called the Nominative by Apposition.

(4) A noun used in direct address is in the nominative case; as, "*Charles*, bring me your book." This may be called the nominative of Direct Address.

(5) A noun used without direct connection with any verb, to express an independent idea, is in the nominative case; as, The *hour* having arrived, the meeting was

* NOTE.—These rules apply also to the pronoun. See PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS, p. 26.

† NOTE.—For the expressions, "subject complement," "attribute complement," etc., see PART II, p. 207. The terms here used are preferred as simpler, and sufficient for the purpose. Rules for other uses of nouns in certain cases will be found in PART II, pp. 196-198.

opened. This is called the *Nominative Absolute*. (See THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE under INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, Part II, p. 219.)

II. The Possessive Case

A noun expressing possession, origin, source, or other close relation, is in the possessive case; as, "My *father's* house"; "The *man's* character"; "The *nation's* history."

Where several nouns form one possessive phrase, with the *s* of the possessive added only to the last (p. 20), each noun preceding the last is held to be also in the possessive case, but with the sign of the possessive omitted; as, *Liddel* and *Scott's* lexicon.

III. The Objective Case

(1) A noun used as the object of a verb, forming what is called the *direct object*, is in the objective case; as, He repelled the *intruder*. This may be called the Objective after a Verb.

(2) A noun used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case; as, from *Boston*; in *London*; to *New York*. This may be called the Objective after a Preposition.

It is chiefly in this connection that the noting of the *objective case* is of practical importance.

A noun in the *objective case* can not be the subject of any finite verb in the same sentence. It is very rarely that the *objective case* after a verb could be so misused, but with prepositions this is very common. Many persons will make the verb agree with the nearest noun, and will say or write, for instance:

"The presence of many strangers were observed."

But "strangers" is in the *objective case*, after the preposition "of," and can not, therefore, be the subject of the following verb. We must pass over the prepositional phrase, "of many strangers," as if it were not there, in order to find the true subject of the verb, which is the noun "presence."

But "presence" is in the singular number, and must take a singular verb, so the sentence becomes :

"The *presence* of many strangers *was* observed."

(3) The subject of the infinitive is in the objective case. (See p. 83.)

(4) A noun which is in apposition with the object of a verb or of a preposition, or with the subject of an infinitive, is in the objective case; as, Miltiades defeated Darius, the Persian *emperor*. This may be called the Objective by Apposition. (See IV.)

IV. Apposition

(*Applying equally to all the cases*)

RULE.—A noun used to limit, explain, expand, or emphasize the meaning of another noun, or of a pronoun, denoting the same person or thing, is put by apposition in the same case; as, Cæsar, the *conqueror*, entered Rome in triumph; the commandment of us, the *Apostles*.

A noun which is in apposition with another noun or with a pronoun is called an *appositive*.

Apposition in Proper Names

Where two or more proper names apply to the same person, as *Julius Cæsar*, *John Paul Jones*, that name which is chiefly distinctive is treated as the true subject or object, etc., and the other names are treated as in *apposition* with that. Thus, if we were to say "Cæsar," the question might be "which Cæsar?" The answer would be "Julius." Julius is, therefore, explanatory of "Cæsar," and hence is an *appositive*. So "John" and "Paul" are *appositives* of "Jones."

EXERCISE

Give the case of every noun in the following extracts:

[This may be made a general review of THE NOUN by giving also gender, person, and number of all nouns included.]

24 ENGLISH GRAMMAR SIMPLIFIED

The manly part is to do with might and main what you can do.—EMERSON *The Conduct of Life*.

Our acts our angels are, or good or ill,
Our fatal shadows that walk by us still.

JOHN FLETCHER *An Honest Man's Fortune*.

Suit the action to the word, the word to the action.—SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act iii, sc. 2.

Affection is the broadest basis of good in life.—GEORGE ELIOT *Daniel Deronda*, bk. v, ch. 35.

Age shakes Athena's tower, but spares gray Marathon.
BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. ii, st. 88.

We do not count a man's years, until he has nothing else to count.—EMERSON *Society and Solitude*.

Sweet souls around us watch us still,
Press nearer to our side;
Into our thoughts, into our prayers,
With gentle helping glide.

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE *The Other World*.

Look, in this place ran Cassius' dagger through.—SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*.

O, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength, but it is tyrannous
To use it like a giant.

SHAKESPEARE *Measure for Measure*, act ii, sc. 2.

Thus Wallace's party grew daily stronger.—SCOTT.

Just sense and sober piety still dictate
The Countess's command.

WALPOLE.

Sound, sound the clarion, fill the fife!
To all the sensual world proclaim,
One crowded hour of glorious life
Is worth an age without a name.

SCOTT *Old Mortality* (head of chapter).

THE PRONOUN

A **Pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun.

Pronouns are so frequently the keys or the turning-points of sentences that they can not be too carefully studied or too thoroughly mastered.

The pronoun is used in place of a noun in either of two ways:

(1) As a substitute for some definite noun, as in the following sentences:

"The son told the *son's* mother that the *son* loved the son's *mother*."

"The son told *his* mother that *he* loved *her*."

The Antecedent.—The word for which a pronoun stands, or to which it refers back, is called its *antecedent*. Thus, in the second sentence above given, "son" is the *antecedent* of "his" and "he," and "mother" is the *antecedent* of "her." For a pronoun which has an antecedent we have the following rule:

RULE.—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, person, and number. (See PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS, pp. 52-56.)

(2) As taking the place and having the effect of a noun, without being a substitute for any particular noun, expressed or understood, and hence having no *antecedent* (p. 52).

PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns have the same properties as nouns, *viz.*: *gender, person, number, and case.*

The properties are the same for pronouns as for nouns, and the definitions given under the noun need not here be repeated. Some pronouns represent these properties more perfectly than any noun (see PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 27), while in other pronouns these properties are very imperfectly represented.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns may be divided into six classes or groups, as follows:

CLASSES	PRONOUNS
1. Personal Pronouns	<i>I, thou, he, she, and it</i>
2. Demonstrative Pronouns	<i>this and that</i>
3. Interrogative Pronouns	<i>who, which, what</i>
4. Relative Pronouns	<i>who, which, what, and that (as, but)</i>
5. Indefinite Pronouns	<i>another, any, each, either, none, etc.</i>
6. Adjective Pronouns	<i>this, that, any, each, which, what, etc.</i>

CLASS I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

A **Personal Pronoun** is one that shows by its form whether the *person speaking*, the *person spoken to*, or the *person or thing spoken of* is referred to.

For example, *I* represents the *person speaking*; *thou* or *you* the *person or persons spoken to*; while *he, she, or it* represents the *person or thing spoken of*.

*Declensions of Personal Pronouns**

FIRST PERSON			THIRD PERSON		
Common† Gender			<i>Singular</i>		
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>		Masculine	Feminine Neuter
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we	<i>Nom.</i>	he	she it
<i>Poss.</i>	my, mine	our, ours	<i>Poss.</i>	his	her, hers its
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us	<i>Obj.</i>	him	her it
SECOND PERSON			<i>Plural</i>		
Common† Gender			Common† Gender		
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>			
	thou	you (ye)		they	
	thy, thine	your, yours		their, theirs	
	thee	you		them	

I. Gender in Personal Pronouns

The pronouns of the first and second persons, in both singular and plural, and the pronoun of the third person, in the plural number, are of common gender—that is to say, indeterminate in gender.

Gender is directly expressed only by the three pronouns of the third person and singular number, *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their subordinate case-forms, *his*, *him*, *her*, *hers*, and *its*. (See SPECIAL USES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS, pp. 33-34.)

* NOTE.—In the Personal Pronouns we have the most perfect examples of *inflection* in the form of *declension* now remaining in the English language. These will, undoubtedly, always remain the same as now, while so many other *inflections* have passed or are even now passing away.

† NOTE.—See COMMON GENDER, under NOUN, p. 6. It will be observed that in the plural of the third person the term "common gender" includes *masculine*, *feminine*, and *neuter*. *They* is the plural of *it*, as well as of *he* or *she*.

When the antecedent of a personal pronoun is a noun indicating gender, and when the pronoun also indicates gender, the pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender. Thus:

The { man
woman
tree } requires { his
her
its } proper food.

If, now, we take the noun in the top, middle, or bottom line as the subject of the sentence, we must use the pronoun on the same line, and that pronoun only, as referring to that subject for its antecedent.

The pronoun may indicate gender when the noun which is its antecedent does not. Thus:

"My friend left this morning, but missed *his* train."

Here, we know that the friend was of the male sex, *because* the pronoun "his" is masculine. It is the *pronoun alone* that tells us anything about the gender

Gender Connections of the Possessive.—It is very important to observe that the gender of the English possessive pronoun is always that of the *possessor*; never—as in so many other languages—that of the person or thing possessed. We say:

"The mother loves *her* son."

Tho the noun "son" is masculine, the feminine possessive "her" is attached to it, because the possessive takes the gender of the *antecedent*, "mother," and *not* the gender of the *object* possessed.

We may reverse the statement and say,

"The son loves *his* mother."

Here the masculine possessive "his" is attached to the feminine noun, "mother," because the possessive pronoun here also takes the gender of its *antecedent*, "son," the possessor, and *not* of the object possessed.

The English method of keeping the possessive of the pronoun to the *gender of the antecedent* preserves the unity of the sentence as no other system can do.

Personification in Pronouns

Personification is a figure of speech by which things without life are referred to as if they were persons. (Compare PERSONIFICATION IN NOUNS, p. 11.)

Personification by the use of pronouns occurs when a masculine or feminine pronoun is used to refer to a neuter noun, as if that noun represented a person and were itself of the masculine or feminine gender.

Thus poets and orators speak of the sun as "he" and of the moon as "she"; and a sailor speaks of his ship, or a railroad man of his engine or train, as "she."

In like manner, the state, the nation, or the church, if personified, is referred to by a feminine pronoun. Poetically we say of the church, for instance, "*her* altars," "*her* ministry"; but in plain prose we say "*its* membership numbers so many thousand." Evidently the rule for all such nouns is that they are of the neuter gender, like all names of inanimate objects.

II. Person in Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns and verbs are the only words in English that indicate person by change of form. (Compare VERB, p. 87.)

The forms of personal pronouns for the several persons have been sufficiently indicated in the table of DE-CLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS (p. 27).

The following items should be carefully noted, *viz.*:

Personal Pronouns Used With or Without Nouns

(1) The pronoun of the first person singular, nominative case, is always expressed by a capital "I," whatever its place in the sentence, or whatever its connection with other words. Other forms of the pronoun of the first person, singular or plural, as *mine*, *me*, and the pronouns of the second and third person, as *he*, *she*, or *it*, are never capitalized, unless when one of them is used at the beginning of a sentence or is for some other reason especially prominent.

(2) The pronoun of the *first person* must always be ex-

pressed.* A noun can never be used in the first person without a pronoun of the first person accompanying it. This is true both in the singular and in the plural. Thus, in the sentence, "*I*, Thomas, am your brother," if we omit the "*I*," we have, "Thomas am your brother," which would be an impossible English construction, instantly felt to be ridiculous. In the sentences, "*I*, your brother, arrived yesterday," "*We*, men, make the laws," "You must deal with *me*, the attorney," if we omit the "*I*," "*we*," and "*me*," we have sentences in the *third person* instead of the *first*, namely: "Your brother arrived yesterday," "Men make the laws," "You must deal with the attorney."

(3) The pronoun of the *second person* may be expressed or omitted, according to circumstances. Thus:

Pronoun Expressed

Pronoun Omitted

"*You*, my friends, listen to me!" "My friends, listen to me!"

"*You*, boys, come here!"

"Boys, come here!"

Both forms are equally correct grammatically. The use of the pronoun makes the expression more personal, which may be pleasing between friends, but may sometimes be offensive to strangers. In such imperative sentences (see VERB, p. 81 (4)), the use or omission of the pronoun of the second person is a matter of taste or feeling, to be settled by circumstances in each case.

There are other expressions where the pronoun of the *second person* can not be omitted. Thus, in the sentences, "*You* men will go," or, "Will *you* men go?" if we omit the pronoun, we change the sentences to the *third person*, *viz.*: "Men will go," or "Will men go?"

(4) The pronoun of the *third person* is scarcely ever expressed if the noun is given. Such expressions as, "The man *he* told me," are never used by correct writers or speakers. Commonly, the very way we decide that a noun is in the

* NOTE.—An exception is sometimes made in business letters, where the subject of the verb is at times wholly omitted; as "Sent you yesterday one bale," etc. This is a common business abbreviation, but without effect to change the rule.

third person is by the absence of an accompanying pronoun. Thus:

First Person—We men are mortal.

Second Person—You men are mortal.

Third Person—Men are mortal.

III. Number in Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns have complete forms for both the singular and plural, but in the plural of the third person a single set of forms (*they, their, or theirs, them*) is used as the common plural of *he, she, and it*. These forms for the most part explain themselves, but certain special uses require to be noted, as follows:

Use of “*you*” for “*thou*.”—The plural forms, *you, your, and yours* are now regularly, and almost exclusively, used in addressing a single individual,* the pronoun of the second person singular (*thou, thy or thine, thee*) being now wholly out of use in ordinary writing or conversation. The following caution must be carefully noted, however:

Caution.—*You*, when singular in use, still *remains plural in form*, and must always take a plural verb. We use “*you are,*” “*you were,*” etc., in addressing a single person—never “*you is*” or “*you was.*”

Uses of Thou

The forms *thou, thy or thine, thee*, have now only the three following uses:

(a) In Scriptural language or in prayer. (See THE ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE, p. 124-130.)

(b) In our older literature, as in the plays of Shakespeare, and somewhat rarely in modern poetry or oratory, where the ancient style is imitated, or where the older forms are used as especially impressive.

(c) In the conventional language of the Society of Friends, who have, however, introduced some changes peculiar to their

* NOTE.—*You* referring to a single person is an instance of a pronoun that does not “agree with its antecedent in number.”

mode of speech, using the objective as a nominative with the third person of the verb, and saying, for instance, "thee is" instead of "thou art."

EXERCISE

Select the personal pronouns from the following extracts and decline each one.

A friend should bear his friend's infirmities,
But Brutus makes mine greater than they are.
SHAKESPEARE *Julius Cæsar*, act iv, sc. 3.

And so to tread
As if the wind, not she, did walk;
Nor prest a flower, nor bowed a stalk.
BEN JOHNSON *The Vision of Delight*.

The pyramids themselves, doting with age, have forgotten the names of their founders.—FULLER *Holy and Profane States*.

I heard him walking across the floor,
As he always does, with a heavy tread.
LONGFELLOW *The Golden Legend*, pt. ii.

For by these
Shall I try friends; you shall perceive how you
Mistake my fortunes; I am wealthy in my friends.
SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act ii, sc. 2.

I am not of that feather to shake off
My friend when he must need me.
SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act i, sc. 1.

I would be friends with you and have your love.
SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act i, sc. 3.

Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel;
But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
Of each new-hatch'd, unfledg'd comrade.
SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act i, sc. 3.

Let the doors be shut upon him, that he may play the fool nowhere but in his own house.—SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act iii, sc. 1.

The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool.—SHAKESPEARE *As You Like It*, act v, sc. 1.

You violets that first appear,
By your pure purple mantles known,
Like the proud virgins of the year,
As if the spring were all your own,—
What are you when the rose is blown?
SIR HENRY WOTTON *To the Queen of Bohemia*.

Special Uses of Personal Pronouns

(a) **The Indeterminate Masculine.**—The third person singular masculine of the personal pronoun, *he*, is often used to refer indifferently to persons of either sex; as, "If any one returns the ring, *he* will receive a reward"—it being understood that "*he*" may refer indifferently to man or woman, boy or girl. This obviates the necessity of saying, "*He* or *she* will receive a reward," "A reward will be given to *him* or *her*," or the like. "*He*," "*his*," or "*him*," so used, is to be parsed as "of the masculine gender, used indeterminately."

Incorrect Use of the Third Person Plural.—"If any boy or girl comes late, *they* will lose *their* seat." The fact that the plural genderless form is so convenient in its own place will not allow us to use it for the singular. In such cases, either use the masculine "*he*," "*his*," for both sexes, as explained in the paragraph above, or change the form of expression. For instance, in the particular example here given, it would be easy to say, "If any *boys* or *girls* come late, *they* will lose *their* seats." Then the plural would be correct throughout.

(b) **The Indeterminate Neuter.**—The neuter of the personal pronoun has the peculiar use, in many instances, of simply dismissing gender from consideration. We refer to a child or an animal, for instance, by the pronoun *it* or *its*, not as implying that the individual referred to has no sex, but

simply that we do not know or do not care about the sex. Thus, we say:

"The *child* was crying for *its* mother."

"The hunter shot the *bird*, and broke *its* wing."

Here "child" and "bird" do not become neuter, since each denotes a living being. "Child" and "bird" are each indeterminate in gender. We wish the pronoun also to be indeterminate, as "his" or "her" could not be. Hence we use "it" or "its" in a peculiar sense, with the understanding that the neuter form gives no indication of gender.

(c) **Special Uses of We.**—It is customary for a monarch to use "we," "our," and "us" in referring to himself; as, "*We* hereby decree," etc. This is called the Plural of Majesty.

The editor of a paper or magazine uses "we" in referring to himself; as, "*We* referred in our last issue to the recent act of Congress," etc. This is called the Editorial We, and is at times used also by essayists when desirous not to have their writing seem too personal.

(d) **The Indefinite You.**—It is common to use "you" as applying indefinitely to any or all persons, and not especially to the person or persons addressed; as, "*You* will win friends by being friendly"—that is, *any one* will so win friends.

(e) **The Indefinite It.**—The pronoun *it* may refer to a phrase or clause, or even to an entire sentence, or at times to some implied thought; as, "Some say that matter is eternal, but I do not believe *it*"; i.e., I do not believe *the statement* "that matter is eternal."

Or, the pronoun *it* may be used as the indefinite subject of a verb, without referring to anything in particular; as "*It* rains"; "*It* is too late to go." (The verb in such use is often called *impersonal*.)

It may be used as an *introductory particle*, to represent a phrase or clause that is to follow the verb; as, "*It* is likely that he will come."

Formerly *it* was used indefinitely as a supplementary object of a verb, as it is still used in poetry, and sometimes in popular speech; as, "Come and trip *it* as we go"; to "foot *it* to town."

EXERCISE

Tell the person and number of each personal pronoun in the following extracts and decline the pronoun.

Beauty is its own excuse for being.—EMERSON *The Rhodora*.

Ring-ting! I wish I were a primrose,
 A bright yellow primrose blowing in the spring!
 The stooping boughs above me,
 The wandering bee to love me,
 The fern and moss to creep across,
 And the elm-tree for our king!

WILLIAM ALLINGHAM *A Child's Song*.

The turf is warm beneath her feet.
 Bordering the beach of stone and shell,
 And thick about her path the sweet
 Red blossoms of the pimpernel.

CELIA THAXTER *The Pimpernel*.

You take a pink,
 You dig about its roots and water it,
 And so improve it to a garden pink,
 But will not change it to a heliotrope.

E. B. BROWNING *Aurora Leigh*, bk. vi.

Fate has carried me
 'Mid the thick arrows; I will keep my stand.—
 Not shrink and let the shaft pass by my breast
 To pierce another.

GEORGE ELIOT *The Spanish Gypsy*, bk. iii.

Yet, ah! why should they know their fate,
 Since sorrow never comes too late,
 And happiness too swiftly flies?
 Thought would destroy their paradise.

GRAY *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College*.

A poppy grows upon the shore,
 Bursts her twin cup in autumn late:
 Her leaves are glaucous green and hoar.
 Her petals yellow, delicate.

ROBERT BRIDGES *The Sea Poppy*.

IV. Case in Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns have for the most part different forms for the several cases, both in the singular and in the plural. The case forms are sufficiently shown in the table of DECLENSIONS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 27.

REMARKS

(1) **Use of "Ye" and "You."**—In the older English the form "ye" was used as the nominative, and "you" as the objective. "You" is now the only accepted form for the nominative as well as the objective.

(2) **Possessives Used with Nouns.**—The possessives *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, and *their* are used with the nouns which they qualify, precisely as adjectives would be; as, *my* book; *our* home; *his* pen, etc. *My*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, and *their* are never used apart from a noun which they qualify; *his* and *its* may be used either with or without a noun denoting the object possessed.

(3) **Possessives Used Without Nouns.**—Several possessives of the personal pronouns appear in double forms, viz.: *my*, *mine*; *our*, *ours*; *thy*, *thine*; *your*, *yours*; *her*, *hers*; *their*, *theirs*. Of these the second of each pair, *mine*, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, and *theirs* is never (with certain rare exceptions) used with a noun, but stands alone as representing both the possessive and the noun to which it refers. These forms may be called the *secondary possessives* of their pronouns. Thus we have either, "This is *my* book" or "This book is *mine*." *His* and *its* may be used without a noun in a precisely similar way, as, "This is *my* book; that is *his*"; "You have your life, and the tree has *its*." A possessive thus used without a noun *is treated in all respects as if it were itself a noun*, and may be either the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition; as, "*Yours* is here; give me *mine*"; "Put your book with *mine*."

EXCEPTIONS

Mine and *thine* are often used in poetical style, as they formerly were on all occasions (as in the Scriptures), before a noun beginning with a vowel or with silent *h*.

"Oh that my head were waters, and *mine* eyes a fountain of tears." *Jer.* 9:1.

The Possessive After *Of*.—Just as a noun may form a double possessive, "That knife *of Henry's*" (see p. 21), so may a possessive pronoun when used without its noun; as, "that house *of mine*"; "that knife *of his*." That this does not mean one of a collection, as "*of my houses*" or "*of his knives*," appears from such expression as, "this heart *of mine*," where it can not be so explained. The double possessive is an accepted form of English usage, by which the possessive is carried to the end of the phrase, clause, or sentence after *of* and without an accompanying noun.

Compound Personal Pronouns

Certain compound personal pronouns are formed by adding the word *self* or *selves* to the possessive of the simple personal pronoun. These compound personal pronouns are:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
myself (ourselves),	ourselves,
thyself (yourself),	yourselves,
himself, herself, itself,	themselves.

These forms are the same both in the nominative and the objective, and have no possessive. They are used:

(a) For emphasis; as, "I will go *myself*"; "I saw the man *himself*."

(b) For reference to the subject of the verb; as, "I hurt *myself*"; "Take care of *yourself*"; "They support *themselves*." Pronouns thus referring back to the original subject are often called *Reflexive Pronouns*.

(c) Occasionally as substitutes for the simple personal pronouns; as, "This invitation is for *yourself*"; "Regards to *yourself* and family."

EXERCISE

Give the number and case of each personal pronoun in the following extracts:

The present is our own; but while we speak,
We cease from its possession, and resign
The stage we tread on to another race,
As vain and gay and mortal as ourselves.

T. L. PEACOCK *Time*, l. 9.

And let him be sure to leave other men their turns to speak.—BACON *Essays, Of Discourse*.

And I will trust that He who heeds
The life that hides in mead and wold,
Who hangs yon alder's crimson beads,
And stains these mosses green and gold,
Will still, as He hath done, incline
His gracious care to me and mine.

WHITTIER *Last Walk in Autumn*, st. 26.

No person who is not a great sculptor or painter can be an architect. If he is not a sculptor or painter, he can only be a builder.—RUSKIN *The True and the Beautiful, Sculpture*.

But let the good old corn adorn
The hills our fathers trod;
Still let us, for his golden corn,
Send up our thanks to God.

WHITTIER *The Corn-Song*.

The highest compact we can make with our fellow is—Let there be truth between us two forevermore.

—EMERSON *Essays, Behavior*.

For friendship, of itself a holy tie,
Is made more sacred by adversity.
DRYDEN *The Hind and the Panther*, pt. iii, l. 47.

CLASS II. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

A **Demonstrative Pronoun** is one that directly indicates its antecedent, as if with pointing finger (from the Latin *demonstro*, point out).

The only demonstrative pronouns are *this* (plural, *these*) and *that* (plural, *those*), which are the same for all genders, persons, and cases.

This points out its object as near in space, time, or thought; *that* points out its object as comparatively remote in space, time, or thought; as, "*This* (in my hand) is my book"; "*That* (in your hand) is yours"; "*This* is my property, and I wish to buy *that* land adjoining"; "*This* event happened yesterday; *that*, a century ago."

This or *that* may refer, not to any single noun as an antecedent, but to a phrase, clause, or sentence, or even an implied thought. Thus: "Is the atomic theory sound? *That* is what science wishes to ascertain." *This*, so used, may refer to a statement or thought which is to follow; as, "Tell me *this*, can I depend on your giving the message promptly?"

ERROR.—It is common to hear such expressions as, "*these* kind of flowers," "*those* sort of people," which are wholly inaccurate. "Kind" or "sort" in such a phrase is singular. Tho a plural noun with a preposition follows it, the noun "kind" or "sort" continues singular, and the adjective pronoun accompanying it must also be singular. We are speaking of many "flowers," it is true, but of only one "kind"; of many "people," but of only one "sort." A good way to make this clear to oneself is to omit altogether the prepositional phrase ("of flowers"; "of people"); then every one would say, "*this* kind," "*that* sort," etc. Hence we should say, "*this* kind of flowers," "*that* sort of people," and so in all similar cases.

EXERCISE

Point out and explain the demonstrative pronouns in the following examples:

The thing we long for, that we are
For one transcendent moment.

LOWELL *Longing*.

A wild rose roofs the ruined shed,
And that and summer well agree.

COLERIDGE *A Day Dream*.

No more of that, Hal, an thou lovest me.—SHAKESPEARE
Henry IV, pt. i, act ii, sc. 4.

This is the thing that I was born to do.

SAMUEL DANIEL *Musophilus*, st. 100.

Ay, these look like the workmanship of heaven;
This is the porcelain clay of human kind,
And therefore cast into these noble moulds.

DRYDEN *Don Sebastian*, act i, sc. 1.

They look into the beauty of thy mind,
And that, in guess, they measure by thy deeds.

SHAKESPEARE *Sonnet* lxxix.

That's too civil by half.—SHERIDAN *The Rivals*, act iii, sc. 4.

God grants liberty only to those who love it, and are always
ready to defend it.—DANIEL WEBSTER *Speech*, June 3, 1834.

These are excitements to duty; but they are not suggestions
of doubt,—DANIEL WEBSTER *First Bunker Hill Monument*
Oration.

CLASS III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

An **Interrogative Pronoun** is a pronoun used to ask a question. (Such pronouns are often called simply *interrogatives*.)

The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

These are used also as relative pronouns, but the interrogative use came first in order of time.

The interrogative pronouns are the same for all genders, persons, and numbers. *Who* alone has distinction of case, and is declined as follows:

Masculine, feminine, and neuter;

Singular and plural;

Nominative. *who*.

Possessive. *whose*.

Objective. *whom*.

Which and *what* have no declension, being wholly without change of form, however used. (For the possessives of *which* and *what* used as interrogatives the prepositional phrases with *of* are commonly employed—*of which*, *of what*. But *whose* may be used as the possessive of *which*. (See RELATIVE PRONOUNS, p. 44.)

While the interrogatives have no gender forms of their own, they may be used with reference to subjects of the different genders, as follows:

(a) *Who* as an interrogative, is used only for persons (these being, of course, either masculine or feminine).

(b) *Which*, as an interrogative, may be used either for persons, for the inferior animals, or for things, *i.e.*, for a masculine, feminine, or neuter noun.

(c) When so used of persons *who* is *universal*; *which* is *selective*. That is, *who* asks for any one of all persons; *which* asks for any one of a certain number or group of persons. Thus:

"*Who* did this?" The answer may be any one or more of all persons, present or absent, living now or in any past time.

"*Which* of you did this?" The answer is some *one or more of the group of persons addressed*. "*Which* of the boys did this?" The answer points out some one or more of a *certain number or group of boys*, as the boys of the school, of a class, or the like. That is, *which* selects from a limited number, and not, like *who*, from all persons whosoever.

What, as interrogative, may apply either to persons, to the inferior animals, or to things. As applied to persons, *what* is *descriptive*. That is, *what* asks for the character, occupation, or the like. Thus:

"*What* is that man?" The answer may be, "He is a teacher (or a preacher, or a soldier, etc.)." That is, the answer tells what the person is or does. If we asked, "*Who* is that man?" the expected answer would tell his name.

What, as applied to things, is *universal*, asking for any one of all things; as, "*What* did you find?" "*What* have we here?" "*What* do you wish?"

When a direct question is made indirect, as in quotation, the interrogative pronoun has much the appearance of a relative, tho it still remains interrogative. Thus:

*Direct Question**Who* did this?*Which* is that?*What* did you find?*Indirect Question*He asked *who* did this.He asked *which* that was.They inquired *what* I found.

In indirect questions the pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are to be classed as interrogatives, because the question is still contained in the phrase, tho in different form.

For *who*, *which*, and *what* as relatives, see RELATIVE PRONOUNS, p. 43. For *which* and *what*, used with an accompanying noun, see ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, p. 50.

EXERCISE

Point out and explain the interrogative pronouns in the following examples:

What shall I do to be forever known,
And make the age to come my own?

COWLEY, *The Motto*.

You know who critics are?—the men who have failed in literature and art.—DISRAELI *Lothair*, ch. 35.

Who o'er the herd would wish to reign,
Fantastic, fickle, fierce, and vain?
Vain as the leaf upon the stream,
And fickle as a changeful dream;—
Thou many-headed monster thing,
Oh, who would wish to be thy king?

SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. v, st. 30.

What sought they thus afar?

Bright jewels of the mine?

The wealth of seas, the spoils of war?—

They sought a faith's pure shrine!

MRS. HEMANS *Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers*.

Why, what is pomp, rule, reign, but earth and dust?
And, live we how we can, yet die we must.

SHAKESPEARE *Henry VI*, pt. iii, act v, sc. 2.

Which is the villain? . . . Which of these is he?

SHAKESPEARE *Much Ado about Nothing*, act v, sc. 1.

What then remains, but well our power to use,
And keep good humor still, whate'er we lose?

POPE *Rape of the Lock*, can. v, l. 29.

And who is he that will harm you, if ye be followers of
that which is good?—1 *Peter* 3:13.

CLASS IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

A **Relative Pronoun** is a pronoun that relates to an antecedent, and at the same time joins to it a limiting or qualifying clause; as, "This is the house *that* I prefer"; "We found a boatman, *who* rowed us over the ferry"; "He is fond of apples, *which* are very healthful."

The relative pronouns in common use are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*. (See **AS AND BUT AS RELATIVE PRONOUNS**, p. 45; also **COMPOUND RELATIVES**, p. 46.)

Declensions of Relative Pronouns

Of the relatives, *who* alone is declined (compare **INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS**, p. 40), as follows:

Masculine and feminine;

Singular and plural;

Nominative. who,

Possessive. whose,

Objective. whom.

Which, *what*, and *that* have no declension, being the same for all genders, for both numbers, and in the nominative and objective cases, and having no possessive; *as* and *but* are likewise never declined.

Exception.—To the statement that *which* is not declined, there is an apparent exception, tho only of usage, not of form; namely, that

Whose, the possessive of *who*, is used also as the possessive of *which* by many of the best authors. Thus:

'Tis beauty truly blent, *whose* red and white
Nature's own sweet and cunning hand laid on.

SHAKESPEARE *Twelfth Night*, act i, sc. 5, l. 257.

Spires *whose* silent finger points to heaven.

WORDSWORTH *The Excursion*, bk. vi, l. 19.

Gender Uses of Relative Pronouns.—Relative pronouns have *no proper distinctions of gender*, but certain distinctions of usage are established, as follows:

(a) *Who* refers only to *persons* (that is, to intelligent living beings), but without discriminating masculine or feminine; we say with equal propriety, "The boy *who* was there" or "The girl *who* was there."

(b) *Which*, as a relative, now refers only to the lower animals without distinction of masculine or feminine, as, "The whale, *which* was resting quietly"; or to things without life, as, "Consult the dictionary, *which* is a storehouse of knowledge." (Compare the interrogative *which*, p. 41.)

(NOTE.—*Which* was formerly freely used for persons, even in the most exalted sense, as in the Authorized Version of the Bible, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven." Matt. 6:9.)

(c) *What*, as a relative, is strictly neuter in use, referring only to things without life. (Compare the use of *what*, as an interrogative, p. 41.)

Personal Uses of Relative Pronouns.—*Who* and *that* may be used for either the first, second, or third person. Thus:

"I, John, *who* also am your brother." *Rev.* 1:9; "You *who* are present know the facts, and those *who* are absent will be informed"; "I, *that* speak unto thee am he"; *John* 4:26; "Is it nothing to you, all ye *that* pass by?" *Lam.* 1:12.

By ellipsis or omission of its antecedent, *who* may be used with the force of a double relative, equivalent to *he that*, *they*

that, the one or ones that, etc.; as, *whom* the gods would destroy they first make mad. With the exception of some old proverbial sayings, this usage is now confined to poetry.

Who builds a church to God, and not to Fame,
Will never mark the marble with his name.

POPE *Moral Essays* ep. iii, l. 285.

Which and *what*, as referring only to the lower animals or to inanimate objects, are used only in the third person.

What as a Double Relative.—The relative *what* is peculiar, as combining in itself antecedent and relative, being equivalent to *that which*; as, Take *what* (*that which*) you want. When an antecedent is expressed, *what* should not be used. Not, “the man *what* met me,” but “—— *who* met me”; not “the house *what* I live in,” but “—— *which* (or *that*) I live in,” etc.

Forms with *Of* in Place of the Possessive.—Instead of the possessive of the relative, the form with *of* is frequently used, *of whom*, *of which*, *of what*. When *of* is used with *that*, the *of* follows *that*, and is carried to the end of the clause or sentence; as, “This is the man *that* I spoke *of*.” (See PREPOSITION, p. 140.) In the case of *who* or *which* we may use either the possessive *whose* or the form with *of*—*of whom*, *of which*.

Which is often used, like *it* (see p. 34 (*e*)), as referring, not to any single noun, but to a phrase or clause, or even to an implied thought as its antecedent; as, “He asserted that the United States is merely a confederacy, *which* I do not believe.”

As and But as Relative Pronouns.—In certain connections, *as* is commonly explained as a relative pronoun.

This relative use of *as* is most frequent after *such*—“such ecclesiastics *as* resided in Rome.”

But is sometimes classed as a relative pronoun in such sentences as “There is not a bird *but* does more good than

harm." Many of the foremost authorities, however, prefer to treat *but* in such use as an adversative conjunction, which it elsewhere usually is.

Compound Relative Pronouns

Who, *which*, and *what* add the suffixes *ever* and *soever*, with distributive effect, to make the pronoun apply to any one of all persons or things without limitation.

Who has also the form *whoso*, but this form is now archaic, that is, used only in our older literature, and not in modern speech or writing. The compound relatives are:

(whoso)		
whoever	whichever	whatever
whosoever	(whichsoever)	whatsoever

The forms in *soever*, like the form *whoso*, are archaic, tho not wholly disused. *Whoever* and *whosoever* form the objectives *whomever* and *whomsoever*. (For the use of these compound pronouns in sentence construction, see THE COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 232.)

EXERCISE

Point out and explain the relative pronouns in the following extracts; name their antecedents:

Like Dead Sea fruit that tempts the eye,
But turns to ashes on the lips!

MOORE *Lalla Rookh, The Fire Worshipers.*

The condition which high friendship demands is ability to do without it.—EMERSON *Essays, Of Friendship.*

Who friendship with a knave hath made,
Is judged a partner in the trade.

GAY *The Old Woman and Her Cats.*

He who has a thousand friends has not a friend to spare,
And he who has one enemy shall meet him everywhere.

ALI BEN ABU TALEB.

To wisdom he's a fool that will not yield.

SHAKESPEARE *Pericles*, act ii, sc. 4.

The little windflower, whose just opened eye
Is blue as the spring heaven it gazes at.

BRYANT *A Winter Piece*.

The fresh eglantine exhaled a breath,
Whose odors were of power to raise from death.

DRYDEN *The Flower and the Leaf*, l. 96.

And what they dare to dream of, dare to do.

LOWELL *Ode at Harvard Commemoration*, 1865.

Whose game was empires, and whose stakes were thrones;
Whose table earth; whose dice were human bones.

BYRON *The Age of Bronze*, st. 3.

What makes life dreary is the want of motive.—GEORGE
ELIOT *Daniel Deronda*, bk. viii, ch. 65.

CLASS V. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

An **Indefinite Pronoun** is a pronoun that represents an object indefinitely or generally; as, “*Any* of you may go who wish”; “Has *either* of them been here?” “Bring me *some* of those books.”

The chief indefinite pronouns are *another*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *some*, *such*.

In the older style *ought* (anything) and *naught* (nothing), sometimes spelled *ought* and *nought*, were used as indefinite pronouns. *Certain*, *divers*, *sundry*, and *whether* were also formerly so used; as, “*Whether* of them twain did the will of his father?” *Matt.* 21:31.

All, *few*, *many*, *much*, and *several* are by some treated as indefinite pronouns. Many of the best authorities, however, prefer to treat these words as adjectives which are at times used as nouns, and they will be so considered in this book. The fact that *few*, *many*, and *much* have comparative and superlative seems to rank them distinctly as adjectives, since adjectives only are compared.

Compound Indefinite Pronouns

A number of compounds are sometimes classed as indefinite pronouns; as, *anybody, anything, everybody, everything, nobody, nothing, somebody, something*. In every one of these cases, the closing portion of the compound (*body, thing*) is a noun. Hence, many of the best authorities treat these compounds as nouns, and they will be so treated in this book. *Somewhat*, tho formed of the two pronouns *some* and *what*, seems to have the qualities of a noun, like *something*, etc., and is hence classed as a noun.

Indefinite Pronominal Phrases.—Certain groups of words, as *any one, every one, no one, some one*, are pronominal phrases or pronoun phrases, used like indefinite pronouns.

Possessive with *else*.—A peculiar English usage is, that when the adverb *else* is associated with one of these phrases, the whole expression is used in the possessive case like a single word. Thus we say, *anybody else's, any one else's, somebody else's, some one else's*.

(Some grammarians insist that in all such cases we should say, *anybody's else*, etc. But the commonly preferred usage puts the sign of the possessive at the end of the entire phrase, treating the whole as a single pronominal or substantive phrase, as above stated.)

Distributive Pronouns.—The Indefinite Pronouns *each, either*, and *neither* are sometimes termed Distributive Pronouns, because they separate some of the objects referred to from others spoken of in the same connection.

Reciprocal Pronouns.—The Indefinite Pronouns grouped in the phrases, *each other, one another*, are sometimes called Reciprocal Pronouns, because the action of each is regarded as affecting the other. Strictly *each other* should be used only of two persons, *one another* of more than two; as, "The husband and wife loved *each other*"; "All the firemen were helping *one another*." But this distinction is not always observed.

Gender and Person in Indefinite Pronouns.—The Indefinite Pronouns are the same in form for all genders and persons.

Number in Indefinite Pronouns.—Of the Indefinite Pronouns, *another*, *each*, *either*, and *neither* are singular only; *any* and *both* are plural only; *some* and *such* are either singular or plural; *one* and *other* are singular, but form regular plurals, *ones* and *others*. *None* (as a compound of *no* and *one*), was formerly held to be singular only, but is now by approved authors used also as a plural:

None linger now upon the plain,
Save those who ne'er shall fight again.

SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. vi, st. xviii, 1.39.

Any was formerly used as a singular, and *other* as a plural without change of form.

Cases of Indefinite Pronouns.—The indefinite pronouns have the same form in the nominative and in the objective case, whether singular or plural. *Another* and *one* form regular possessives, *another's* and *one's*; *either's*, *neither's*, *other's*, and *others'* are also, tho more seldom used.

When the intensive *self* is added to one, it may form either a possessive phrase, *one's self*, or a compound, *one-self*; the latter is coming to be preferred.

EXERCISE

Point out and explain the indefinite pronouns in the following examples:

All are architects of Fate,
Working in these walls of Time;
Some with massive deeds and great,
Some with ornaments of rime.

LONGFELLOW *The Builders*, st. 1.

None but himself can be his parallel.

LEWIS THEOBALD *The Double Falsehood*.

In other part stood one who, at the forge
Laboring, two massy clods of iron and brass
Had melted.

MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. xi, l. 564.

Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.—BACON *Essays, Of Studies*.

I never knew a man in my life who could not bear another's misfortunes perfectly like a Christian.—POPE (*Swift's Thoughts on Various Subjects*).

How happy could I be with either,
Were t'other dear charmer away!
But while ye thus tease me together,
To neither a word will I say.

GAY *Beggar's Opera*, act ii, sc. 2.

The soul is superior to its knowledge, wiser than any of its works.—EMERSON *Essays, The Oversoul*.

CLASS VI. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

The demonstratives *this* (plural, *these*) and *that* (plural, *those*), the interrogatives and relatives *which* and *what*, and all the indefinite pronouns, except *none*, may be used with nouns and pronouns like adjectives; as, *this* book; *these* apples; *that* man; *those* boys; *some* people; *another* day, etc. Pronouns so used are frequently called **Adjective Pronouns**.*

Who is never used as an adjective pronoun.

None is never used in modern English as an adjective pronoun, tho formerly so employed; the adjective *no* now takes the place of *none* before a noun or pronoun; as, *no* man; *no* one; *no* others.

REMARKS

It will be seen that all the pronouns called *Adjective Pronouns* are included in the classes of *Demonstrative*, *Interrogative*, *Relative*, and *Indefinite Pronouns*. They do not strictly constitute a separate class. But since the term "adjective pronouns" has been widely used, it may be well to retain it.

* For the term *Pronominal Adjectives*, by some applied to these words, see under ADJECTIVE, foot-notes on pp. 59 and 62.

The simple fact is that,

All pronouns may be used as adjectives—except who and none and the various personal pronouns. When we find a pronoun so used, as in the expression “this man,” we may say, “this is a demonstrative pronoun used as an adjective”; or we may say, “this is an adjective pronoun.” One form is as correct as the other. The really important thing is, not to multiply names which the pupil is compelled to remember.

EXERCISE

Point out and explain all the adjective pronouns in the following extracts:

The true University of these days is a collection of books.
—CARLYLE *Heroes and Hero-Worship*.

The muse might tell what culture will entice
The ripened melon to perfume each month.

GRAINGER *The Sugar Cane*.

Some friendships are made by nature, some by contract, some by interest, and some by souls.—JEREMY TAYLOR *A Discourse on Friendship*.

This fellow is wise enough to play the fool;
And to do that well craves a kind of wit.

SHAKESPEARE *Twelfth Night*, act iii, sc. 1.

I have touched the highest point of all my greatness;
And from that full meridian of my glory,
I haste now to my setting.

SHAKESPEARE *Henry VIII*, act iii, sc. 2.

With one hand he put
A penny in the urn of poverty,
And with the other took a shilling out.

POLLOK *Course of Time*, bk. viii, l. 632.

The true greatness of nations is in those qualities which constitute the greatness of the individual.—CHARLES SUMNER
Oration on the True Grandeur of Nations.

And this cuff was but to knock at your ear, and beseech listening.—SHAKESPEARE *Taming of the Shrew*, act iv, sc. 1.

He tried each art, reprov'd each dull delay,
Allured to brighter worlds, and led the way.

GOLDSMITH *The Deserted Village*, l. 169.

There is always hope when people are forced to listen to both sides.—MILL *On Liberty*.

PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS

The **Antecedent**.—The word for which a pronoun stands, or to which it refers back, is called the *antecedent*.

(*Antecedent* is from the Latin *ante*, before, and *cedo* go, signifying "that which goes before.")

The antecedent of a pronoun is ordinarily a noun or pronoun; as, Here is *the man who* called you; It is *he who* called.

Pronouns Without Antecedents

A pronoun taking the place and having the effect of a noun, without being a substitute for any definite noun, has no antecedent.

EXAMPLES

(1) The pronoun of the first person, "I," never has an antecedent. "I" stands for the personality of the speaker, just as a noun might do, but differs from a noun in the fact that it does not *name* the speaker; it *represents* the speaker without *naming* him, and thus is not a "name-word," as a noun is.

(2) The pronoun of the second person, "thou" or "you," commonly has no antecedent; as, "Canst *thou* deny it?" "Are *you* ready?"

(3) The pronoun "it" has often no antecedent; as, "*It* rains"; "*It* is time to start." In such sentences "it" is not a substitute for any definite noun, but holds a place such as a noun might hold, as the subject of the verb, maintaining

the form of the sentence. "It" is thus used "in place of a noun," but not as a substitute for any definite noun.

(4) The pronoun "what" never has an antecedent, but carries the antecedent within itself, being equivalent to "that which" (see p. 45); as, "Take *what* (that which) you want."

(5) An interrogative pronoun (see pp. 40-42) has no antecedent; we ask by the pronoun *just because we do not know* what noun to use; as, "*Who* is there?" "*Which* is yours?" "*What* do you wish?"

(6) A pronoun may be used without an antecedent when it is itself the antecedent of another pronoun; as, "*He* who spoke these words is present." In this sentence the pronoun "he" is the antecedent of the pronoun "who"—while "he" itself has no antecedent but represents a person not previously mentioned but afterward described by the relative clause beginning with "who." Such forms of expression are very common.

In the older style such an antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "*Who* (*i.e., He* who) steals my purse, steals trash." Here the antecedent, tho omitted, is clearly understood.

A pronoun for which no antecedent can be given is used just as a noun might be; it is "used in place of a noun"; tho not as a substitute for any particular noun, and differs from a noun in *representing* without *naming* the object for which it stands.

Pronouns Agreeing with Antecedents

Where a definite antecedent exists, suitable agreement of pronoun and antecedent is one of the most important means of binding the different parts of a sentence together, especially when in the compound or complex sentence the pronoun and antecedent may be far apart, and perhaps in different clauses.

RULE.—A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, person, and number. (See p. 25.)

The uses of pronouns according to this rule are ordi-

narily perfectly clear, and only special uses need here be noted, as follows:

I. Gender

Antecedents of Different Genders.—If two or more singular antecedents are connected by *and*, the pronoun will ordinarily be plural (see under NUMBER), and can have but one form, which is *the same for all genders*. (See DECLENSIONS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS, p. 27.) Thus: "The father and mother are caring for *their* child." Here no difficulty occurs.

EXCEPTIONS

(1) If the pronoun refers to but one of the nouns so connected as its antecedent, the pronoun will take the gender of the antecedent referred to; as, The bride and bridegroom are living at *her* father's house. In such cases the gender of the pronoun is always indicated by the sense.

(2) Two or more nouns or pronouns of different genders and singular number, if connected by *or* or *nor*, *can not take a personal pronoun in the singular that will be appropriate for both or all*. Thus we can not say, "Some lady or gentleman has lost *his* purse," nor "Some lady or gentleman has lost *her* purse."

The incorrect use of the plural *their* in such cases is noted on p. 33. The best course is to change the form of expression. We may avoid the attempt, for instance, to supply a pronoun, and say, "Some gentleman or lady has lost *a* purse."

II. Person

When a pronoun refers to two or more singular antecedents of different persons, it chooses among them, preferring the first person to the second and third, and the second to the third; as, You and I must make up *our* quarrel; He and I have arranged *our* affairs; You and he have made *your* choice.

This is true also if the antecedents are connected by *or* or *nor*; as, Either you *or* I have misunderstood *our* contract; Neither you *nor* he understand *your* work.

But a pronoun following two or more connected nouns or

pronouns may refer to but one of them, or to neither of them, as its antecedent. In such case the pronoun takes the person of the antecedent to which it does refer; as, Both he and I are living in *his* house; Neither you nor I can do *his* work ("his" referring to some other person spoken of or mutually understood).

III. Number

(1) A noun plural in form, but singular in use (see PLURALS TREATED AS SINGULARS, p. 16), is referred to by a pronoun in the singular number; as, The *news* has done *its* work; Every means tried has failed of *its* purpose; That hundred dollars has reached *its* destination. (It should be observed that an adjective pronoun modifying such a noun is also in the singular, as "That" in the last example above given.)

(2) A collective noun (p. 4) singular in form may be referred to by a pronoun either in the singular or the plural number, according as it refers to the objects composing it as one aggregate or as separate individuals; as, The committee has finished *its* work; The committee were divided in *their* opinions.

(3) When a singular noun is modified by two or more adjectives denoting different aspects, uses, or varieties of an object, it may take a pronoun (or a verb) in the plural; as, Greek and Roman architecture WERE different in *their* type.

(4) When two or more singular nouns or pronouns are connected by *and*, they are taken jointly, and a pronoun referring to them jointly is in the plural; as, The brother *and* sister have left *their* home.

EXCEPTIONS

(a) When two or more singular antecedents connected by *and* denote the same person or thing, a pronoun referring to them is singular; as, The patriot *and* hero has finished *his* work.

(b) When two or more singular antecedents connected by *and* are modified by *each*, *every*, or *no*, they are taken separately, and a pronoun referring to them is in the singular; as, EACH town and EACH village sent *its* representatives; No ship *and* no boat was without *its* flag.

(c) If singular antecedents connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished by some added word or words, as *also*, *as well as*, *even*, *not*, *too*, or the like, they are as a rule taken separately, and referred to by a pronoun in the singular; as, Age, and grief *also*, wrought *its* effect upon him.

(5) When two or more singular antecedents are connected by *or*, *nor*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, they are taken separately, and a pronoun referring to them is in the singular number; as, *Either* the man *or* the boy will find *himself* in error; *Neither* the trapper *nor* the Indian would yield *his* ground.

(6) (a) When two or more antecedents of different numbers, connected by *or* or *nor*, are referred to by a pronoun, the pronoun agrees with the antecedent nearest to it, and the antecedent that is in the plural should come last before such pronoun; as, NEITHER the mule NOR the horses had finished *their* oats.

(b) If, however, nouns of different numbers are connected by *and*, there is no perplexity, as the pronoun is, as a rule, in the plural, and the order of the nouns is unimportant; as, The horses and the mule were eating *their* oats.

Relatives and Antecedents

The antecedent of a relative pronoun is usually a *noun* or *pronoun* in the clause on which the relative clause depends; as, There is the BOY *whom* we met yesterday; HE *whom* you seek is not here. In the first sentence the antecedent of "whom" is "boy"; in the second the antecedent of "whom" is "he."

The antecedent of a relative pronoun may be a *noun-phrase* of the clause on which the relative clause depends, or it may be that entire clause; as, He ordered me to BEGIN WORK, *which* I promptly did; The speaker declared THAT ALL MEN ARE LIARS, *which* I do not believe. In the first sentence the antecedent of "which" is the noun-phrase "to begin work"; in the second sentence the ante-

cedent of "which" is the noun-clause "that all men are liars."

Personal Pronouns and Relative Clauses

RULE 1.—If the personal pronoun following a relative pronoun refers to the antecedent of the relative, *it takes the gender and number of that antecedent*; as, I saw a farmer, who was feeding *his* cattle; I found the lady who had lost *her* purse.

RULE 2.—If the personal pronoun following a relative refers to an antecedent different from that of the relative, it takes the gender and number of the antecedent referred to; as, I saw the lady, and the man who had taken *her* purse.

THE ADJECTIVE

An **Adjective** is a word used to describe or limit a noun or pronoun; as, "a *large* house"; "a *high* hill"; "I am *hungry*"; "he seems *weak*"; "I have *two* books"; "He found it *good*."

The adjective is thus said to *modify* a noun or pronoun.

SECTION 1

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives may be divided into two classes:

(1) **Descriptive Adjectives**, stating some quality of the noun or pronoun to which they are applied; as, "*a beautiful* rose"; "salt is *useful*."

(2) **Limiting Adjectives**, restricting the meaning of the noun or pronoun within some special limit; as, "*one* person"; "*double* measure"; "a *daily* paper."

Descriptive Adjectives may be subdivided into various groups. Among these may be mentioned:

(a) **Participial Adjectives**; as, "*singing* birds"; "a *learned* man." (See PARTICIPLES under VERB, p. 90 (1).)

(b) **Proper Adjectives**, *i.e.*, adjectives derived from proper names; as, "an *American* Indian"; "a *European* language." (It must be carefully noted that in English a proper adjective *must always begin with a capital letter*. This rule is largely disregarded in the "library style," which is a technical system for noting the titles of books, and not recognized in ordinary usage.)

Limiting Adjectives are divided into:

(a) **Adjectives of Quantity**, including **Numeral Adjectives**, *one, two, three*, etc. (see NUMERALS, pp. 68-70), and various

Adjectives of Repetition, Division, Measure, or Frequency; as, *half, double, fourfold, daily, weekly*, etc.

(b) The Articles *a* or *an* and *the* (see THE ARTICLES, p. 70).

Every adjective, whether descriptive or limiting, is a modifier of some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.

Adjective Use of Nouns and Pronouns

(1) **Nouns Used as Adjectives.**—Nouns are often used with the force of adjectives; as a *brick* house; a *gold* watch. A noun so used is to be treated as “a noun *used* as an *adjective*,” or, as is sometimes said, “used attributively.”

(2) **Pronouns Used as Adjectives.**—Most pronouns, as *this, that, which, what*, etc., may be used like adjectives.* (See ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, pp. 50-51.)

SECTION II

POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE

I. With the Noun

The Adjective Preceding Its Noun.—This is, in English, the established usage, so that it may be given as a rule that,

The English adjective regularly precedes its noun; as, a *good* man; a *fine* harvest; a *lofty* spire. (Compare POSITION OF THE ARTICLE, p. 73.)

The Adjective Following Its Noun.—This may occur in the cases given below:

(1) For emphasis; as, men *good* and *true*; joy *unspeakable*; reasons *innumerable*. Placing the adjective out of its

* NOTE.—Some grammarians prefer to call the adjective pronouns *pronominal adjectives*; but as these words are best known and recognized as *pronouns*, it seems preferable to treat them always as pronouns. Further, to treat *this* and *that* as adjectives gives two adjectives with plural forms—the only two in the English language. At the same time, *this, that, which, what*, etc., have no comparison.

usual order causes the mind to give it especial attention. This usage is very common in poetry and in elevated prose, tho in poetry it is often adopted simply for the sake of meter or rime, as:

"The waters *wild*
Went o'er his child."

(2) Certain adjectives are regularly placed after the nouns they modify: *afraid*, *alert* (often, not always), *alike*, *alive*, *alone*, *ashamed*, *askew*, *asleep*, *averse*, *awake*, *aware*, *else*, *enough* (usually), *extant*, *extinct*, *fraught*, *pursuant*; also adjectives in certain special combinations, such as notary *public*, that is, a *public* notary; court *martial*, a *martial* (or military) court, and various others.

(3) Certain nouns, *viz.*: *anything*, *everything*, *nothing*, *something*, are regularly followed, and not preceded, by any modifying adjective; as, *anything* good; *something* important.

(4) When an adjective is modified by any word or phrase which could not well come between the adjective and its noun, the adjective so modified follows its noun; as, a person *desirous* to do right; a child, *eager* to learn; a mind *conscious* of rectitude (where we could not say "a *desirous* to do right person," or the like).

(5) An adjective may be used as an epithet after its noun, and is then commonly preceded by the article "the"; as, Frederick *the Great*; Edward *the Seventh*. But when the name of a monarch is written with Roman numerals, the article is not written; as, Charles II, George IV; tho in reading such an expression the article is commonly given, so that "Charles II" is usually read, "Charles the Second."

(6) In some forms of expression the adjective may either precede or follow its noun according to taste or convenience, without fixed rule. Thus we may say either "the *past* month" or "the month *past*," etc.

II. With the Pronoun

An adjective directly modifying a pronoun regularly follows the pronoun which it modifies; as, We found him *unconscious*.

Adjectives in Combination

Two or more adjectives connected by a conjunction or conjunctions expressed or understood, may modify a single noun or pronoun;* as, The child, *faint, weary, and sad*, was sitting by the wayside.

Two adjectives may be joined to one noun or pronoun without a conjunction expressed or understood, when one adjective modifies the complex idea expressed by the other adjective with its noun; as, A *poor old* man (that is, an *old man* who is *poor*); a spirited *white horse* (that is, a *white horse* that is *spirited*).

CAUTION.—When adjectives are so used, the one next the noun must be such as the former may properly qualify. We should not say, “The *two first* pages,” because there can be but one “first” page, but “The *first two* pages,” because the pages may be thought of as in pairs or sets, giving a “*first two*,” a “*second two*,” etc.; so “The *next three* houses”; “the *last ten* lessons.”

The Predicate Adjective

An adjective may be carried quite away from its noun, and used after a verb in the predicate, to modify the subject; as, The hour is *late*; The boy is *honest*. An adjective so used is called the *predicate adjective*. (See PARTS OF SPEECH IN THE PREDICATE, Part II, p. 204.)

SECTION III

PROPERTIES OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives have only one property demanding special consideration. This property is called *Comparison*.

* NOTE.—Where several adjectives thus modify a single noun or pronoun, the conjunction is usually omitted except before the last adjective of the series, as in the example above given.

Simplicity of the Adjective

English adjectives have neither gender, person, number, nor case.*

This is a fact of the very greatest importance and value. When we once know the original form of an adjective, we have only to use that form for any noun or pronoun, whatever the gender, person, number, case, or position of that noun or pronoun may be. In this, English differs from most other languages, ancient or modern, thus obtaining the advantage of exceeding simplicity, with no loss of clearness.

Thus we may say:

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
The good	man (<i>masculine</i>)	men
	woman (<i>feminine</i>)	women
	child (<i>common</i>)	children
	house (<i>neuter</i>)	houses
	tree (<i>neuter</i>)	trees

The same article and adjective "The good," apply correctly to any one of these noun forms. We need never have an instant's perplexity but say freely, "*The good man*," "*The good men*," "*The good woman*," "*The good women*," etc.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Comparison is the method by which an adjective (or an adverb, p. 133) may be made to express a greater or less degree of the same quality.

There are three degrees of comparison, as follows:

1. **The Positive Degree.**—An adjective in the positive

* NOTE.—Some grammarians call the ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS (pp. 50-51), "Pronominal Adjectives." Thus, by naming *this* and *that* (with their plurals) "adjectives," they introduce among adjectives "number" and "plurals," which no true adjectives have—a wholly needless complication. These words are *pronouns used as adjectives*. When treated as ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS, they present no difficulty. The statement above remains true.

degree expresses simply the quality of an object without reference to any other object; as, a *tall* man; a *sad* story; a *good* book.

2. **The Comparative Degree.**—An adjective in the Comparative Degree expresses more or less of a quality in an object than that of some other object or objects with which it is compared; as, a *taller* man; a *sadder* story; a *better* book; a *smaller* house; a *more valuable* gift; a *less probable* explanation.

3. **The Superlative Degree.**—An adjective in the superlative degree expresses the greatest or least amount or intensity of a quality that is found among all the objects compared; as, the *tallest* man in the company; the *saddest* story I ever heard; the *best* book I ever read; the *most important* item; the *least objectionable* method.

Modes of Comparison

I. **Regular Comparison.**—Adjectives are regularly compared in two different ways, as follows:

(1) **Comparison by the Suffixes *er* and *est*.**—Monosyllables and some dissyllables form the comparative by adding to the positive the suffix *er*, and the superlative by adding to the positive *est*; as, *sad*, *sadder*, *saddest*; *hot*, *hotter*, *hottest*; *wild*, *wilder*, *wildest*; *pleasant*, *pleasanter*, *pleasantest*.

(a) When the positive ends in mute *e*, the final *e* is dropped before adding *er* or *est*; as, *brave*, *braver*, *bravest*; *simple*, *simpler*, *simplest*.

(b) When the positive is a monosyllable ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled before *er* or *est*; as, *big*, *bigger*, *biggest*; *red*, *redder*, *reddest*.

(c) When the positive is a dissyllable ending in *le*, the comparative and superlative are formed, as with monosyllables, by adding *er* and *est*, dropping the mute *e* before the suffix; as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest*; *noble*, *nobler*, *noblest*.

(d) When the positive ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, the comparative and superlative are formed, as with monosyllables, by adding *er* and *est*, but changing the *y* into *i* before the suffix; as, dry, *drier*, *driest*; lovely, *lovelier*, *loveliest*; silly, *sillier*, *sillest*. *Shy* and *sly* may retain the *y*.

(e) When the positive is a dissyllable accented on the last syllable, the comparative and superlative are formed by adding *er* and *est* exactly as to monosyllables; as, genteel, *genteeler*, *genteelest*; polite, *politer*, *politest*; severe, *severer*, *severest*. (There is, however, no objection to comparing such adjectives by *more* and *most*, and this method is often preferred.)

(f) Various other dissyllabic adjectives are also compared by *er* and *est*, according to no very definite rule; as, bitter, *bitterer*, *bitterest*; clever, *cleverer*, *cleverest*; cruel, *crueller*, *cruellest*; handsome, *handsomer*, *handsomest*; tender, *tenderer*, *tenderest*.

The correct usage in such words can be learned only by careful study of the dictionary and of the best authors.

Caution.—Participles used as adjectives, or adjectives of similar form, do not now take *er* and *est*; we do not say “tired*er*,” “willinger,” “learned*est*,” tho similar usage was common in Shakespeare’s time. Instead, we say, “more tired,” “more willing,” “most learned,” etc.

(2) **Comparison by Adverbs**, *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*.—Adjectives of more than one syllable (except as noted in the preceding section) generally form their comparative and superlative by prefixing to the positive the adverbs *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*.

(a) *Comparison in the ascending series*, as it is called, by *more* and *most*, is that chiefly used with such words; as, more intelligent; more competent; most satisfactory; most unusual.

This method may be often interchanged with that in *er* and *est*, and we may say either “commoner” or “more common,” “commonest” or “most common,” etc.

When two or more adjectives are connected by *and*, the adverb *more* or *most* may be prefixed to the whole series,

even tho one or more of the words would ordinarily be compared by *er* or *est*; as, He was the *most* wise, learned, and eloquent of men.

For emphasis or euphony, especially in poetry, *more* or *most* may be employed where *er* or *est* would ordinarily be used; as, "Never was friend *more* true."

(b) *Comparison in the descending series*, indicating a diminishing amount or intensity of a quality, is only made by prefixing to the positive the adverbs *less* and *least*; as, he was *less* estimable; that method would be *least* objectionable.

II. Irregular Comparison.—We have in English a very small list of irregularly compared adjectives,* *viz.*:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
bad } evil } ill }	worse	worst
far	{ farther { further	{ farthest { furthest
good } well }	better	best
hind	hinder	{ hindermost { hindmost
(in, <i>adv.</i>)	inner	{ innermost { inmost
late	{ later { latter	{ latest { last
little	{ less { lesser	least
many } much }	more	most
old	{ elder { older	{ eldest { oldest
(out, <i>adv.</i>)	outer	{ outermost { outmost
(up, <i>adv.</i>)	upper	{ uppermost { upmost

* NOTE.—*Next* is regarded as superlative of *near* or of *nigh*, which are otherwise regular.

To these it would be possible to add a few other forms, which are either not now in general use, or have ceased to be recognized as comparatives or superlatives, and hence need not here be considered.

Double Comparatives or Superlatives.—Where two forms of the comparative or superlative are found, difference of meaning or use may accompany difference of form.

Thus *farther*, *farthest*, commonly refer to physical distance; *further* and *furthest*, while they may be so used, are oftener applied to advance or reach of thought; as, "This *further* argument is to be considered." *Later* and *latest* are used directly of time; *latter* and *last* of succession in order. *Elder* and *eldest* denote superiority in age without the implication of being *old*; but *older* and *oldest* imply more of the qualities indicated by the positive *old*; the *elder* or *eldest* son or daughter may still be very young; this distinction, however, is not always closely observed.

A Special Superlative in -most.—A number of adjectives having the effect of superlatives are formed by adding the suffix *most* to the positive of an adjective, to an adverb, or even to a noun used adjectively; as *foremost*, *endmost*, *midmost*, *topmost*, etc. In such cases usually no comparative degree exists.

Adjectives without Comparison

The Numerals (p. 68) and the Articles (p. 70) do not admit of comparison.

Adjectives denoting material, geographical position, etc., are as a rule not compared.

Adjectives expressing some quality that does not admit of degrees are not compared when used in their strict or full sense; as, *square*, *perpendicular*, *circular*, *absolute*, *eternal*, *illimitable*, *complete*, *perfect*, etc.

But such adjectives are often used in a modified or approximate sense, and when so used admit of comparison.

If we say, "This is *more perfect* than that," we do not

mean that either is perfect without limitation, but that "this" has "more" of the qualities that go to make up perfection than "that"; it is *more nearly* perfect. Such usage has high literary authority.

To form a *more perfect* union.

Constitution of the United States.—Preamble.

SECTION IV

USES OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE

(a) **The Comparative Excludes.**—The Comparative holds its object separate from the object or objects compared. When we say, "*This* is better than *that*," we imply that "this" is separate and distinct from "that"; nothing of "this" must be included in "that," if they are to be compared by the comparative degree.

Hence it is an error to say, "I like *this* better than *anything*," because "anything" includes "this"; "this" is part of "anything"; we should say, "I like *this* better than *anything else*"; the "else" separates "this" from the rest of "anything," and they can then be compared. Similarly, it is an error to say, "*This* storm is worse than *any* I ever saw," because you have seen "this storm," of which you speak; hence "this" is included in "any"; you must separate it from the class in order to compare it by an adjective in the comparative degree, and say, "*This* storm is worse than *any other* I ever saw." The latter expression is correct, because "other" is a separating word.

(b) **The Superlative Includes.**—The Superlative views its object as one of the objects compared; it is in the same class or group. Thus, when we say, "*This* is the best of *all* the apples," we mean that "this" is one of "all," and we might say with perfect propriety, "This is the best *among* all the apples." The superlative should

be used only when its object is thus *one of the objects compared*.

A good test for the use of the superlative is whether we could use after it "among" in place of "of," and say, "the best *among*," "the greatest *among*," etc. If so, the superlative is correct; if not, we should use the comparative.

(c) **Two or More Than Two.**—The comparative refers only to *two* objects or sets of objects, while the superlative ordinarily refers to *more than two*.

This is not, however, an invariable rule. The superlative indicates an object as at the head of its class or group. But two objects may constitute a class or group, and one of the two may be thought of as surpassing all else in that class or group, without any reference to the number. Hence the expression, "This is the *best* of the *two*" is the most forcible that can be employed, and is now approved by many good authors, tho "This is the *better* of the *two*" is ordinarily regarded as more elegant by careful speakers and writers.

(d) **Than after Comparatives.**—The Comparative is always followed by *than* before the object of the comparison; as, better *than* this; greater *than* that. (Foreigners sometimes use "as" in place of "than," saying, "better *as* this" or "greater *as* that," which can never be correct English.)

(e) **Of after Superlatives.**—The Superlative is commonly followed by *of* before its object; as, the best *of* all. But *among*, *in*, *within*, or some other inclusive preposition may be used equally well; as, He was foremost *among* his contemporaries; this building is the highest *in* the city.

SECTION V

THE NUMERALS

Numerals are numbering adjectives. They are of two classes, Cardinals and Ordinals.

(a) The Cardinals, or Cardinal Numeral Adjectives, indicate number absolutely, without reference to position

or relation; as, *ten* apples; *fifty* dollars. They are as follows:

1. one	19. nineteen
2. two	20. twenty
3. three	21, etc., twenty-one, etc.
4. four	30. thirty
5. five	40. forty
6. six	50. fifty
7. seven	60. sixty
8. eight	70. seventy
9. nine	80. eighty
10. ten	90. ninety
11. eleven	100. one hundred
12. twelve	101, etc., one hundred and one, etc.
13. thirteen	1000. one thousand
14. fourteen	1100. one thousand, one hundred
15. fifteen	(or, eleven hundred)
16. sixteen	10,000. ten thousand
17. seventeen	1,000,000. one million
18. eighteen	1,000,000,000. one billion [U. S.]

Numerals, like other adjectives, are freely used as nouns; as, I will take *five*; more than a *hundred* were present.

A cardinal numeral, used as a noun, may or may not take the article, and may be either in the singular or plural according to the meaning to be expressed;* as,

"Were there not *ten* cleansed? but where are *the nine*?"
Luke 17:17.

Millions of spiritual creatures walk the earth
 Unseen, both when we waken and when we sleep.

MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. iv, 1.

(b) The Ordinals, or Ordinal Numeral Adjectives, indicate, not absolute number, but numbered position in

* NOTE.—A numeral preceding and qualifying a *noun* is used as an adjective and of course takes no plural; as, *ten thousand* men. A numeral used without a noun is itself treated as a noun, and may take the plural form; as, *tens of thousands* of men.

a series; as, the *fifth* chapter; the *hundredth* meridian. They are, corresponding to the cardinals:

first	twelfth	thirtieth
second	thirteenth	fortieth
third	fourteenth	fiftieth
fourth	fifteenth	sixtieth
fifth	sixteenth	seventieth
sixth	seventeenth	eightieth
seventh	eighteenth	ninetieth
eighth	nineteenth	hundredth
ninth	twentieth	thousandth
tenth	twenty-first, etc.	millionth, etc.
eleventh		

To express an ordinal number by a figure, *st*, *d*, or *th* is added to the figure, according to the sound to be represented; as, *1st*, *2d*, *3d*, *4th*, etc. Such a form is not considered an abbreviation and does not require to be followed by a period.

A date written in full is expressed by an ordinal number; as, the *twenty-fifth* of December. When figures are employed for the date, in modern usage, no indication of the ordinal is written; as, Dec. 25, 1915. This, however, is read, "December *twenty-fifth*," or, by very precise persons, "December *the twenty-fifth*."

In reading or naming a fraction, the numerator is expressed by a cardinal and the denominator by an ordinal numeral; thus, $\frac{1}{8}$ is read *one-eighth*. Where the denominator is 2, it is read *half*; thus, $\frac{1}{2}$ is read *one-half*. In writing out such forms in words, a hyphen is always used.

SECTION VI

THE ARTICLE

An article is a limiting adjective serving to designate or point out a noun, and may be used with or without other adjectives modifying the same noun.

Articles are never applied to pronouns, except in the rare cases when a pronoun is used as a noun; as, The "it" is here quite indefinite; the word "it" being used, not as a pronoun, but as a noun, the *name* of a word.

There are two Articles, the Indefinite and the Definite.

(1) The **Indefinite Article**.—The Indefinite Article is *a* or *an*, which are but different forms of a single word, varied for the sake of euphony.*

The form *a* is used before words beginning with a consonant *sound* (however spelled), and the form *an* before words beginning with a vowel *sound* (however spelled); as, *a* man; *a* woman; *a* horse; *a* unit; *an* apple; *an* orange; *an* honor; *an* error; *an* engine.

Words like *one*, *unit*, *university*, tho written with an opening vowel, are spoken as if beginning with a consonant, being pronounced *wun*, *yunit*, *yuniversity*; hence they take the form *a*; as, many *a* one; *a* unit, etc. Words like *heir*, *honor*, *hour*, tho written with an opening consonant (*h*), are spoken as if beginning with a vowel, as *eir*, *onor*, *our*; hence they take the form *an* of the indefinite article.

The same rule holds when any adjective comes between the article and its noun. If the adjective begins with a consonant *sound*, the article *a* is used before it, and if it begins with a vowel *sound*, the article *an* is used—whatever the following noun might require. Thus we say, "*an* apple," but "*a* good apple"; "*a* pocket," but "*an* empty pocket"; "*an* honor," but "*a* great honor"; "*a* man," but "*an* honest man."

A or *an* indicates any one of a class of objects without choice or discrimination; as, Take *a* chair (any chair); Bring me *a* book (any book). Hence *a* or *an* has received the name of the Indefinite Article.

CAUTION.—The article *an* must not be confused with the conjunction *and*, as is done by many ill-educated persons.

* NOTE.—*An* is the original, and *a* the abbreviated form. *An* is from the Anglo-Saxon *an*, "one," originally a numeral adjective. It has, however, lost its force as a numeral, and simply indicates an individual, with no reference to counting or numbering.

(2) **The Definite Article.**—This is the simple word *the*, always the same in all situations and under all conditions; as, *the* king; *the* beggar; *the* wise man; *the* fool; *The* dog is mine; I see *the* dog.

The article *the* has a euphonic difference of pronunciation, according as it precedes a vowel or a consonant *sound* (however spelled). Before a vowel *sound*, the final *e* has its long sound, like *ee* in *sweet*; as, *the* apple; *the* honest witness. Before a consonant *sound*, the *e* becomes obscure, and is sounded like the final *a* of *sofa*; as, *the* book; *the* house; *the* foolish boy.

The always indicates a definite object, either:

(a) An object so well known as not to need to be described; as, *The* man is here (the man we have been expecting or seeking); This is *the* book (which has been referred to or inquired for).

(b) An object about to be described, the word *the* pointing on to a description to come; as, *The* story (which I am about to relate) is a sad one.

(c) An object emphatically designated, as if the only one worthy of consideration; as, He made *the* speech (pre-eminently) of the occasion.

A noun preceded by the article *the* often indicates a whole class or species; as, *The* dog is a useful animal.

Man or *woman*, however, is used in the general or generic way without the article; as, *Man* can adapt himself to any climate.

Man without the article may be used: (1) As denoting all mankind, including women and children; as, *Man* is mortal; (2) As denoting male human beings as a class, so contrasted with *woman*; as, *Man* is more adventurous, *woman* more domestic.

Adjectives with *The* Used as Nouns.—The definite article *the*, used with an adjective alone, gives to the adjective the effect of a noun which may be either singular or plural in meaning, according to the connection of words in the sentence; as, *The* good (goodness) is

more important that *the beautiful* (beauty); or, *The good* (good people) are commonly also *the happy* (happy people).

The with Comparatives.—*The* in such phrases as, “*The wiser he is, the better,*” is not the article, but an adverb, signifying “*by how much—by so much.*” (See COMPARATIVES WITH “THE” under THE ADVERB, p. 183.)

Many and Few with the Article.—The English language has certain peculiar idioms in the use of *many* and *few*.

The very common expression *many a*, used before a noun, has the effect of a plural, tho properly used with a singular verb; as, *Many a man* was afraid that day. This is equivalent to saying, “Many men were afraid,” but has a special force by seeming to single out the men individually, one by one. So we say, *many a day*, *many a time*, etc.

The expression, *the many*, signifies the greater number of people, most people; *the few* indicates some limited or exclusive class.

The expressions, *a great many*, *a few*, etc., like collective nouns, take a plural verb or may be referred to by a plural pronoun; as, *A great many* are missing; *A few* answered to their names. The phrase *a few* denotes a more considerable number than the simple adjective *few*; as, *A few* were found by careful search; *few* were ever found.

Position of the Article

The article regularly precedes its noun, and also precedes any other adjective modifying the same noun; as, *a man*; *an hour*; *the tree*; *a ripe apple*; *the swift stream*.

EXCEPTIONS.—After *how*, *so*, and *too*, the order is, adjective, article, noun; as, *How sad a story*; *so merry a company*; *too harsh a judgment*.

When the adjective follows its noun, it may carry the article with it; as, *Alexander the Great*.

See above, MANY AND FEW WITH THE ARTICLE.

EXERCISE

Point out all adjectives, including numerals and articles, in the following extracts, and state what noun each adjective modifies. Note the instances where the use of the article gives to the adjective the force of a noun. Note comparatives and superlatives.

A moral, sensible, and well-bred man
Will not affront me, and no other can.

COWPER *Conversation*, l. 193.

Life is not so short but that there is always time enough
for courtesy.—EMERSON *Social Aims*.

How sweet and gracious, even in common speech,
Is that fine sense which men call courtesy!

JAMES T. FIELDS *Courtesy*.

A foot more light, a step more true,
Ne'er from the heath-flower dashed the dew.

SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. i, st. 18.

And brown is the papaw's shade-blossoming cup,
In the wood near the sun-loving maize.

WILLIAM FOSDICK *The Maize*.

On one side is a field of drooping oats,
Through which the poppies show their scarlet coats.

KEATS *Epistle to My Brother George*.

Here bloom red roses, dewy wet,
And beds of fragrant mignonette.

ELAINE GOODALE *Thistles and Roses*.

The crimson blossoms of the coral-tree
In the warm isles of India's sunny sea.

MOORE *Lallah Rookh*.

None but the brave deserve the fair.

DRYDEN'S *Alexander's Feast*, st. 1.

For pity makes the world
Soft to the weak and noble for the strong.
EDWIN ARNOLD *Light of Asia*, bk. v, l. 401

Nations shall not quarrel then
To prove which is the stronger.
CHARLES MACKAY *The Good Time Coming*.

The reasoning of the strongest is always the best.
LA FONTAINE *Fables*.

But all was false and hollow; tho his tongue
Dropped manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason.
MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. ii, l. 112.

And the best half should have been returned to him.
SHAKESPEARE *Timon of Athens*, act iii, sc. 2.

THE VERB

A **Verb** is a word expressing thought as action; as, "I *run*"; "Come to me."

The action expressed may be outward action, as *walk, run, ride, go, come, look, see, call, shout*, etc.; or the action may be indicated only as a movement of the mind; as *be, exist, remain, endure*.

Verbs of the latter class are said to express *being* or *state*. Hence, some prefer to define a *verb* as "*a word that expresses action or state*"—to which there is no objection.

No sentence can be made without a verb. The little child says, "Cake good"; he tells, after a fashion, what he means; but he has not made a sentence. We say, "Cake is good"; then by the verb, we have completed the thought and made a sentence.

EXERCISE

Find all verbs in the following extracts:

A man will turn over half a library to make one book.

SAMUEL JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson*. 1775.

You hear that boy laughing? You think he's all fun;
But the angels laugh, too, at the good he has done.

O. W. HOLMES *The Boys*, st. 9.

Let us have faith that right makes might, and in that faith let us, to the end, dare to do our duty as we understand it.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN *Address*. Feb. 21, 1859.

Oh, fear not in a world like this,
 And thou shalt know ere long,—
 Know how sublime a thing it is
 To suffer and be strong.

LONGFELLOW *The Light of Stars*, st. 9.

The buttercups across the field
 Made sunshine rifts of splendor.

D. M. MULOCK *A Silly Song*.

All day in the green, sunny orchard,
 When May was a marvel of bloom,
 I followed the busy bee-lovers
 Down paths that were sweet with perfume.

MARGARET E. SANGSTER *Apple Blossoms*.

Her modest looks the cottage might adorn,
 Sweet as the primrose peeps beneath the thorn.

GOLDSMITH *The Deserted Village*, l. 329.

I have looked o'er the hills of the stormy north,
 And the larch has hung all his tassels forth.

MRS. HEMANS *The Voice of Spring*.

They never fail who die
 In a great cause.

BYRON *Marino Faliero*, act ii, sc. 2.

A wild rose roofs the ruined shed,
 And that and summer well agree.

COLERIDGE *A Day Dream*.

CLASSES OF VERBS

I. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—Verbs are divided according to their relation to objects into two classes: (1) Transitive and (2) Intransitive.

(1) A Transitive Verb is a verb that takes an object; as, "*Read this book.*"

(2) An Intransitive Verb is a verb that does not take an object; as, "*The tree falls.*"

REMARKS

Many verbs are both transitive and intransitive, but with a difference of meaning; as, "The prince *succeeds* the king (transitive); "He *succeeds* in all his undertakings (intransitive)"; "The girl *filled* the cup with water" (transitive); "The girl's eyes *filled* with tears" (intransitive).

A transitive verb may be used intransitively, when the chief design is to set forth the act, and to leave the object unknown or indefinite; as, "The boy *reads* well." Here the design is to show *how* the boy reads, not *what* he reads.

II. Principal and Auxiliary Verbs.—Verbs are divided *as to their use* into two classes: (1) Principal Verbs and (2) Auxiliary Verbs.

(1) A **Principal Verb** is one that expresses by itself some act or state, or, if in combination with some other verb, expresses the leading thought of the combination; as, I *read*; I will *go*.

(2) An **Auxiliary Verb*** is one that does not by itself express a complete idea, but is joined to a principal verb in order to express more fully the idea of that *principal verb*; as, I *will* run; I *can* read; You *may* go.

There are eight auxiliary verbs, *viz.*: *be, can, do, have, may, must, shall, and will*.

An auxiliary verb is often called simply an *auxiliary*.

III. Regular and Irregular Verbs.—Verbs are divided *as to their changes of form* (or inflection) into (1) Regular and (2) Irregular Verbs.

(1) **Regular Verbs** form the past tense (see p. 94) and past participle (see p. 95) by adding *ed* to the sim-

* NOTE.—For Conjugations of Auxiliary Verbs, see pp. 100-107.

ple form of the verb; as, *learn*: (past) *learned*; (past participle) *learned*.

When the simple form of the verb ends in mute *e*, the mute *e* is dropped before adding *ed*; as, *love*, *loved*; *change*, *changed*.

Out of at least 8,000 verbs in the English language all but about 200 form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the root form. The list (pp. 120-124) contains 215.

Some of the regular forms in *ed* are pronounced as if ending in *t*; as *stretched*, *stretcht*. In what is called the *Simplified Spelling* these words are spelled as pronounced; as, *puncht*, *puft*, *whipt*, *past*, etc. These are still considered *Regular Verbs*.

(2) **Irregular Verbs** form the past tense and past participle otherwise than by adding *ed*; as, *give*, *gave*, *given*; *see*, *saw*, *seen*.

All the Auxiliary Verbs are irregular.

A list of Irregular Verbs with their principal parts will be found on pages 120-124, and should be carefully committed to memory and referred to in any case of doubt.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS

The properties of verbs are *Voice*, *Mode* (or *Mood*), *Tense*, *Person*, and *Number*.

I. VOICE

Voice is that form of the Transitive Verb that shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

(1) **The Active Voice**.—When the subject of a verb is represented as acting, the verb is said to be in the Active Voice; as, "The sun *attracts* the earth."

(2) **The Passive Voice**.—When the subject of the verb is represented as acted upon, the verb is said to be in the Passive Voice; as, "The earth *is attracted* by the sun."

The distinction of Voice belongs only to Transitive Verbs (see p. 77) or to verbs used transitively (p. 144 (3)).

For the conjugation of the Passive Voice, see the PASSIVE VOICE under CONJUGATIONS, p. 113.

EXERCISE

Point out (*a*) all the verbs in the Active Voice; (*b*) all the verbs in the Passive Voice, in the following sentences:

The boy learned the lesson. The lesson was learned by the boy. The hunter killed the bear. The bear was killed by the hunter. No one heard a sound. No sound was heard. You never did a better thing. No better thing was ever done.

. . . The feather, whence the pen
Was shaped that traced the lives of these good men,
Dropped from an angel's wing.

WORDSWORTH *Sonnet*.

I was born an American; I live an American;
I shall die an American!

DANIEL WEBSTER *First Bunker Hill Monument Address*.

Hear now the birds on ev'ry blooming spray,
With joyous music wake the dawning day.

POPE *Pastorals. Spring*.

II. MODE

Mode is a form of the verb that indicates the manner in which the action or state expressed by the verb is to be regarded.

The word *mode* means "manner," as "I like his *mode* of living."*

The Five Modes

There are five modes, namely: The Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

(1) The Indicative Mode indicates action or state

* NOTE.—Some grammarians prefer to use the word *mood*, which signifies a mental state; as, "He was in a melancholy *mood*." Good authority may be quoted for either term.

spoken of as real, either affirming it to be a fact, denying it to be a fact, or questioning whether it is or is not a fact; as, "I *live* here"; "It *is* not cold"; "*Is* this book yours?"

(2) The **Subjunctive Mode** denotes an action or state as supposed or imagined—as something that may or may not be a fact, or may even be contrary to fact; as, "If I *go*, I shall go alone"; "If I *were* you I would not go." The Subjunctive is the mode of the *conditional sentence*.

If, tho, lest, unless, that, till or a similar conjunction is generally used with the Subjunctive. In the conjugations *if* is commonly prefixed as an indicator to the subjunctive forms, tho one of the other conjunctions above-named might equally well be used; as, (If) I *were*; (If) I *had been*.

By placing the verb or its auxiliary before the subject, the conditional conjunction may be omitted; as, *Had I been* there (*i.e.*, If I *had been* there), it would not have happened.

(3) The **Potential Mode** expresses wish, entreaty, possibility, necessity, or the like, by the use of the auxiliaries *may, can, must, might, could, would, or should*; as, I *may go*; I *could have explained*.

The conjunctions *if, tho, lest, unless, etc.*, are freely used with the Potential Mode; as, I *would engage* him, if I *could trust* him; I will go, *tho* I *may be* late.

(4) The **Imperative Mode** presents the action of the verb as a command, wish, permission, or the like; as, *Study* your lesson; *Have* pity upon me; *Go* in peace.

Imperative means "commanding," and this mode is so named because oftenest used to express command, tho it has also the other uses mentioned.

The imperative is oftenest used without noun or pronoun, tho a pronoun of the second person (singular or plural) may always be supplied as its subject; as:

Love THOU thy land, with love far brought.—TENNYSON.

Call YE my whole, ay, *call*,
The lord of lute and lay.

Charade on name of the poet Campbell.

Give, and it shall be given unto you.—*Luke* 6: 38.

Give YE them to eat.—*Matt.* 14: 16.

It is usual to say that grammatically a pronoun of the second person is “understood” in all such cases, because such pronoun may always be supplied; as, Come (thou)! Look (ye or you)!

(5) The **Infinitive Mode** presents the action or state of the verb as not limited by connection with a subject, as verbs in the other modes are limited; as, *to go*; *to be*.

When we speak of the *infinitive* of a verb, without qualification, that is generally understood to be the *present infinitive* of the *active voice*, which is simply the root-form of the verb, with or without *to*; as, (to) *love*; (to) *give*.

To, as used with the infinitive (called by some the “sign” of the infinitive mode), was originally a preposition, and tho it has now largely lost its prepositional force is still to be so classed.

To of the Infinitive Omitted.—The *to* of the infinitive is commonly omitted after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, and *see*, and also after all the auxiliaries. After the *passive voice* of such of the above-named verbs as may be used in the passive form, *to* is retained; as, He was heard *to enter*; He was seen *to walk*.

The infinitive without *to* is called the *pure infinitive*.

The root-form of the verb as used after the auxiliaries in the conjugations is the *pure infinitive*; as, I shall *love*; He will *call*; They may *give*; etc.

Uses of the Infinitive

The Infinitive has to a great extent the construction of a noun, or sometimes of an adjective or an adverb, while taking the modifiers of a verb.

Like a finite verb, the infinitive may be modified by an adverb or an adverbial phrase; as, to fly *swiftly*, to speak *gently*. Like a finite verb, the infinitive of a transitive verb may take an object in the objective case, as, to study a *lesson*; to tell the *truth*.

The same infinitive may take both an object and an adverbial modifier; as, to study *THE LESSON faithfully*.

The Infinitive Phrase.—In sentence construction the infinitive with its subject or other adjuncts is best treated as *an infinitive phrase*, and parsed as a single element (having the effect of noun, adjective, or adverb, as the case may be); such a phrase may then be analyzed, when desired, into its constituent elements. Thus, in the sentence, "I wish you to go at once," the object of the verb "wish" is the *infinitive phrase*, "you to go at once."

Used as a noun, the infinitive, or infinitive phrase, may be:

(1) The subject of a finite verb; as, *To lie* is shameful; *to tell* a lie is shameful; *To speak* falsely is shameful.

(2) The object of a transitive verb or participle; as I desire *to go*; Desiring *to go*; I wish *to get* breakfast; I intend *to start* immediately.

(3) The object of a preposition; as, He is about *to go*.

(4) A predicate nominative; as, To see is *to believe*; It is safest *to tell* the truth; It is wise *to act* promptly.

(5) The infinitive is sometimes used like an adjective, modifying a noun; as, a desire *to learn*.*

(6) The infinitive is often used adverbially to denote a purpose, a motive, or (after *so—as, then, or too*) to denote a result, as, Be so kind as *to inform* me; He is too honorable *to do* such a thing.†

(7) **An Independent Element.**—An infinitive phrase may be used as an independent element of a sentence, as, *To confess the truth*, I do not care. (See *INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS*, Part II, p. 220 (5).)

(8) **The Subject of the Infinitive.**—The infinitive may be used with or without a subject. When a subject is employed, the rule is as follows:

RULE.—The subject of the infinitive is in the objective case; as, Do you wish *me* to go?

* NOTE.—Some grammarians treat this as an appositive use, considering the infinitive "to learn" as a noun in apposition with "desire."

† NOTE.—The infinitive active is somewhat rarely used in a passive sense; as, A house *to let* (to be let); You are *to blame* (to be blamed).

The Split Infinitive.—Many grammarians hold that an adverb should never come between the *to* of the infinitive and the *verb* form; as, *to faithfully study*. Others give this usage a qualified approval. It is found in some good authors, and is becoming very prevalent.

“To an active mind it may be easier to bear along all the qualifications of an idea, than *to* first imperfectly *conceive* such idea, etc.”

HERBERT SPENCER *The Philosophy of Style*, pt. iii, par. 28.

The Finite Verb

Infinitive means “unlimited.” By contrast, the forms of the verb in all other modes are called “finite” or limited. Hence we have the following:

Definition.—Any form of the verb except the infinitive or participle is called a “*Finite Verb*.”

III. TENSE

Tense is a form taken by a verb to indicate action in relation to time; as, “*I live here*”; “*He went home*”; “*I will meet you*.”

The Six Tenses

There are three great divisions of time, *past*, *present*, and *future*. In each of these divisions of time, an act may be viewed as simply occurring, or as completed or perfected.

A tense which expresses completed or perfected action, grammarians call *perfect*. Hence the three divisions of time give us *six tenses*, *viz.*:

Present	Past	Future
Present Perfect	Past Perfect	Future Perfect

(1) The **Present Tense** denotes an act that takes place, or a condition or state that continues in present time; as, “*I think*”; “*It rains*”; “*That is true*.”

(2) The **Present Perfect Tense** expresses action or state viewed as completed in or continued to the present time; as, "*I have finished this lesson*"; "*This has been a cold winter.*"

Past action expressed by the Present Perfect must come up to and touch the present. The Present Perfect can not be used of an act that is wholly and only in the past. Thus, we can not say, "*I have written last year*"; for that we must use the simple past. "*I wrote last year*"; Hence, the mistake of the foreigner, who says, "*I have come to America five years ago.*" He should not use "*I have come*" for an action that does not touch the present, but is "five years" removed. There he should use the simple past, "*I came.*"

The Present Perfect tense is formed by prefixing *have* or *has* to the past participle of the principal verb; as, *I have heard*; *he has gone*.

(3) The **Past Tense** expresses action or state simply as belonging to past time; as, "*He went to town yesterday*"; "*The king was very powerful.*" The *Past Tense* is formed by inflection, as *loved, gave*. (See p. 94.)

(4) The **Past Perfect Tense** expresses past action as completed before some other past action or some specified past time; as, "*I had finished my work before you came.*" The **Past Perfect Tense** is formed by prefixing *had* to the Past Participle of any verb.

(5) The **Future Tense** denotes action or state simply as expected to occur or to exist in future time. The **Future Tense** is formed by using *shall* or *will* with the root form of any verb; as, "*I shall go*"; "*He will succeed.*"

(6) The **Future Perfect Tense** denotes a future act as one that will be completed before some other future act will occur, or before some specified future time; as "*I shall have finished my lesson at ten o'clock*"; "*He will have left home before you arrive.*"

The **Future Perfect Tense** is formed by adding *have* to the *shall* or *will* of the future tense; as, "I *shall have paid* the money before the bank closes."

Filling out the scheme of tenses on p. 84 with a verb we have:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
I write	I wrote	I shall write
<i>Present Perfect</i>	<i>Past Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
I have written	I had written	I shall have written

Tenses in the Different Modes

(1) The **Indicative Mode** alone has all the **six tenses**, as above given.

(2) The **Subjunctive Mode** is commonly said to have *four tenses* (tho these are in the main the same as those of the Indicative), *viz.*: the *Present*, *Present Perfect*, *Past*, and *Past Perfect*.

(3) The **Potential Mode** has four tenses, *viz.*: the *Present*, *Present Perfect*, *Past*, and *Past Perfect*.

(4) The **Imperative Mode** has but one tense: the *Present*.

(5) The **Infinitive Mode** has two tenses, *viz.*: the *Present* and the *Perfect*; as, *love* or *to love* (present); *to have loved* (perfect). The *Present Infinitive* is commonly called simply "the *Infinitive*."

EXERCISE

Give the mode and tense of each verb in the following extracts:

And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew,
That one small head should carry all he knew.

GOLDSMITH *The Deserted Village*, l. 215.

If there's a power above us, he must delight in virtue.

ADDISON *Cato*, act v, sc. 1.

If you once understand an author's character, the comprehension of his writings becomes easy.

LONGFELLOW *Hyperion*, bk. i, ch. v.

Devise, wit; write, pen; for I am for whole volumes in folio.

Love's Labour's Lost act i, sc. 2, l. 190.

Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

GRAY *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, st. 14.

Houses are built to live in, not to look on; therefore, let use be preferred before uniformity, except where both may be had.

BACON *Essays. Of Building*.

Were not I a little pot and soon hot, my very lips might freeze to my teeth.

Taming of the Shrew, act iv, sc. 1, l. 5.

Stones of small worth may lie unseen by day,
But night itself does the rich gem betray.

ABRAHAM COWLEY *Davideis*, bk. iii, l. 37.

I would * * * earnestly advise them for their good to order this paper to be punctually served up, and to be looked upon as a part of the tea equipage.

ADDISON *Spectator*, No. 10.

IV. PERSON

The action or state expressed by a verb may be that of the person or persons speaking (*first person*), the person or persons spoken to (*second person*), or the person or persons spoken of (*third person*). The verb has thus *three persons*, and according as it is used in one or other of these relations it is said to be of the *first*, *second*, or *third person*.

Second Person Singular Disused

The **Second Person Singular**, in verbs, as well as in pronouns, has become practically obsolete in common speech (see *thou* under pronouns, p. 31). This entire

usage, which may be termed "The Thou System" of verbs and pronouns, will accordingly be treated by itself in the section on "*The Ancient or Solemn Style*," pp. 124-130. Hence, the second person singular of all modes and tenses of all verbs will be omitted in the present chapter, as a practically needless complication, and the accepted use of the language will be followed by giving the second person plural as the regular form to express the second person singular.

V. NUMBER

A verb may express action or state as that of one person or thing, or that of more than one. Hence arises the distinction of Number into Singular and Plural, in the verb as in the noun and pronoun.

Omitting the "Thou System" (mentioned above) the only change of form in verbs to indicate person or number is in the *third person singular* of the *Present Tense* and of the *Present Perfect Tense* of the Indicative Mode, except in the verb *be* (p. 109).

The *person* and *number* of verbs are best learned from the Tables of Conjugations (pp. 108-117).

The Participle

A **Participle** is a part of the verb that may be used independently either as an adjective or a noun,* while retaining the properties of a verb, as that of governing an object, or being modified by adverbs.

* NOTE.—Grammars founded on the Greek and Latin (as all of our older grammars have been) do not admit that the participle can ever be "used as a noun." But English has a method of its own. It has fused three ancient forms into the one form in *ing*, which is that of the present participle. To treat this form in *ing* always as the *present participle*, which may at times be "used as an adjective," and at other times "used as a noun," simplifies the whole subject, and this method is now adopted by eminent grammarians.

Goold Brown, in his *Grammar of English Grammars*, thus defines:

"A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun." Pt. ii, ch. vii, p. 409.

Two participles are formed directly from the verb stem:

(1) The present participle, which always ends in *ing*, and represents the action of the verb as incomplete, or in progress or continuance at the time denoted by the leading verb of the sentence; as, *Being* in the city, I have called upon you; *Seeing* the multitudes, he went up into a mountain.

(2) The past participle, denoting action *as past with reference to the leading verb*, tho perhaps not completed; as, He was a good man, *honored* wherever known; He lives, *honored* wherever known; He will live *honored* wherever known.

Other participles are formed by the aid of auxiliaries, giving three participles in each voice, as follows:

Active Voice

Present

Loving

Past

loved

Perfect

having loved

Passive Voice

Present

being loved

Past

loved

Perfect

having been loved

The same form, *loved*, is used as the past participle in either the Active or the Passive Voice. It is ordinarily called simply the *past participle*. The *past participle* is given

William Taylor Harris, in his *Advanced English Grammar* (1903), p. 249, says:

"The *present participle* is often used as a noun. When used as a noun, the participle retains its verbal power, and may have an object or be modified by an adverb, an adverbial phrase, or an adverbial clause."

Thomas W. Harvey, in his *Practical Grammar of the English Language*, p. 78, says:

"A participle is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun."

This simple treatment avoids the entire perplexity of "verbal noun," "gerund," etc., which has been the cause of perplexity and worry to a multitude of students.

in all grammars as one of the "principal parts" of the verb; as, see, saw, *seen*; love, loved, *loved*. No verb can be conjugated without a participle.

Uses of the Participle

The Participle has four distinct uses:

(1) As an **adjective** *without the adjuncts of the verb*; as, *singing* birds; *laden* bees.

(2) As an **adjective** *with the adjuncts of the verb*; as, the birds, *singing* THEIR SWEET SONGS, flitted among the trees; HEAVILY *laden* bees were flying home.

(3) As a **noun** *without the adjuncts of the verb*; as, *Being* is more than *seeming*; The careful *planning* of your work is important.

(4) As a **noun** *with the adjuncts of the verb*; as, *Thinking* NOBLE THOUGHTS tends to noble actions; *Working* FAITHFULLY brings results; The object of *reading* BOOKS is to gain knowledge; *Planning* YOUR WORK CAREFULLY is important.

REMARKS

The uses under 3 and 4 are not opposed, but are distinct. Both are equally correct, but they must not be confused.

Briefly stated the rule is: The participle used as a noun, *when preceded* by "the," can not take an adverb or a direct object; *when not preceded* by "the," it may take either an adverb or a direct object, or both, just as the corresponding finite verb might do.

We may say either:

"The *selling* of the property was necessary"; or

"*Selling* the property was necessary."

"The" before the participle requires "of" before the object of that participle; if we omit "the," we should also omit "of."

The participle used as a noun may be the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition as, I hear the *cheer-*

ing of the winners. The time for *learning* LANGUAGES is in youth.

The Participial Phrase.—A participle with any closely associated word or words forms a *participial phrase*, which may also be at times called a *prepositional phrase* (p. 145).

A Special Use of the Form in **ING**

Forty and six years was this temple *in building*.—*John* 2:20.

While the ark was *a preparing*.—1 *Pet.* 3:20.

As originally used, the form in *ing* in such phrases is a direct survival of the Anglo-Saxon verbal noun in *ung*, *ing*, and is the object of a preposition. The same form appears in some old ballads; as:

"I'm going *a-milking*, sir," she said.

But with the process of simplification of the language, which is still going on, the little remnant of the preposition has been dropped, so that to speak of going "*a-hunting*" or "*a-milking*" would seem hopelessly old fashioned. We now say, "I am going *hunting*," "I am going *shopping*," etc., where it is very hard to dispose of the *ing* form grammatically, tho every one understands it. The omission of the old preposition by the change of language has left the phrase as an idiom, where the form in *ing* is used as an *adverbial element*, modifying the verb "am going," showing *how*, *why*, or *in what capacity* "I am going."

In some such phrases the form in *ing* is used with a semi-passive sense; as, "The house is *building*," meaning that the process of *building* the house is going on.

This use of the present participle in passive sense, while it has the highest literary authority, is becoming somewhat

rare in present English style. The expression "*is being built*" is now very commonly used in place of "*is building*." (See *IS BEING BUILT*, p. 115.)

EXERCISE

Find all the present and past participles in the following selections:

Thus came the lovely spring with a rush of blossoms and music,
Flooding the earth with flowers, and the air with melodies vernal.

LONGFELLOW *Tales of a Wayside Inn*.

Rest is not quitting the busy career;
Rest is the fitting of self to its sphere.

JOHN S. DWIGHT *True Rest*.

I was a stricken deer that left the herd
Long since.

COWPER *The Task*, bk. iii, l. 108.

Fallen, fallen, fallen, fallen,
Fallen from his high estate,
And welt'ring in his blood;
Deserted at his utmost need,
By those his former bounty fed;
On the bare earth expos'd he lies,
With not a friend to close his eyes.

DRYDEN *Alexander's Feast*, l. 77.

Thought, once awakened, does not again slumber.

CARLYLE *Heroes and Hero Worship*, Sect. I.

A violet by a mossy stone
Half hidden from the eye!
Fair as a star when only one
Is shining in the sky.

WORDSWORTH *She Dwelt Among the Untrodden Ways*.

Conjugation

The **Conjugation** of a verb is an orderly arrangement of all its parts according to Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number.

The Principal Parts

The Principal Parts of a verb are the Present Indicative, the Past Indicative, and the Past Participle. They are so called because when these parts are known, all the modes and tenses of the verb can be readily formed from them. Thus the entire conjugation of the verb "love" or the verb "give" can be formed from the following Principal Parts:

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
<i>Regular</i>	love	loved	loved
<i>Irregular</i>	give	gave	given

Since all the rest may be formed from them, the statement of the principal parts is often called the "conjugation" of the verb, and to "conjugate" the verb is often used as meaning to give its principal parts.

Synopsis

The **Synopsis** of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its forms by mode and tense *in a single number and person*, commonly the first person singular.

The *synopsis* is often used for the sake of brevity as an abbreviated form of conjugation.

The Root-Form and Inflected Forms

The form of the verb used (with or without *to*) in the present infinitive is called the *root-form* of the verb; as, *to do*, *to come*, *to give*, *to call*, *to love*, which may also be called the *verb-stem*. Thus we speak of "the verb *do*,"

"the verb *come*," etc. (See THE INFINITIVE MODE, under MODE, p. 82.)

(1) **The Present Indicative.**—In all verbs (except the verb *be*, which will be later considered) the root-form (*love, call, give, go*, etc.) is used unchanged in the first person singular, and in the first, second, and third persons plural of this tense.

The third person singular makes a slight change by inflection, adding *s* or *es** to the root-form; as, *loves, calls, gives, goes*.

(2) **The Present Subjunctive.**—The root-form of the verb is used unchanged in all persons and numbers of the *present subjunctive*. That is, the present subjunctive differs from the present indicative only by *not* adding *s* or *es* to the root-form of the verb in the third person singular. Thus:

Pres. Indicative, third pers. sing., he gives.

Pres. Subjunctive, third pers. sing., (if) he give.

(3) **The Past Indicative.**—The past tense of the indicative mode is made from the root-form by a slight inflection, adding *ed* to the root-form in regular verbs and by other changes in irregular verbs.

CAUTION.—The past tenses of irregular verbs must be learned one by one, each for itself. (See IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 120.)

When the root-form of the verb ends in mute *e* the mute *e* is dropped before adding *ed*; as, *love, loved; change, changed*. When the root-form ends in *y*, the *y* is changed to *i* before adding *ed*, as, *dry, dried; carry, carried*.

(4) **The Past Subjunctive.**—This is the same as the past indicative (except in the verb *be*, p. 109).

* NOTE.—Verbs ending in *o* add *es*; as *does, goes*. (*Does* is pronounced *dūz*.) Verbs ending in *y* change the *y* to *i* before adding *es*; as, *fly, flies; carry, carries*.

(5) **The Imperative.**—This is the simple root-form of the verb used unchanged in a command, a request, an exclamation, etc.; as, *love; call; give; see there! help!*

(6) **The Present Participle.**—This is formed by the slight inflection of adding *ing* to the root-form of the verb; as, *loving; calling; giving.**

(7) **The Past Participle.**—This is also formed by inflection, adding *ed* to the root-form in regular verbs, precisely as in the past indicative, and by other changes in irregular verbs (see IRREGULAR VERBS, p. 120); as, *loved; called; given.*

In regular verbs the past tense and the past participle are identical in form.

These are all the English verb-forms made by inflection (except certain forms of the verb *be*, p. 109).

Thus in any English verb (excepting the verb *be*) we have never more than five forms produced by inflection (when the "Thou System," p. 124, is omitted); as, *love, loves, loved, loving, loved; call, calls, called, calling, called; give, gives, gave, giving, given.*

Since in regular verbs the past tense and past participle (as *loved* or *called*) are identical in form, regular verbs may be said to have but *four* different forms resulting from inflection (when the "Thou System" is omitted).

These four or five forms give seven parts of the verb, *viz.*: the Present Indicative, Present Subjunctive, Past Indicative, Imperative, Present Infinitive, Present Participle, and Past Participle.

* NOTE.—When the root-form of the verb ends in mute (silent) *e*, the *e* is dropped before adding *ing*, except in the cases following: (1) The final *e* is retained in *hoeing, shoeing, and toeing*; (2) The final *e* is retained in the derivatives of *dye, singe, springe, swinge, and tinge*, to distinguish *dyeing* from *dying, singeing* from *singing*, etc., and to keep the *g* soft in *tingeing*. Verbs in *ie*, as *die, hie, lie, tie, vie*, commonly change *ie* to *y* before *ing*; as, *dying, hying, lying, tying, vying*. Some authorities, however, favor the use of *hieng*.

**The Root-Form and Inflected Forms Tabulated
For the Verbs LOVE, CALL, GIVE**

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

Singular Number

<i>First Person.</i>	I love	I call,	I give.
<i>Second Person.</i>	(same as plural)	(same as pl.)	(same as pl.)
<i>Third Person.</i>	he loves,	he calls,	he gives.

Plural Number

<i>First Person.</i>	we love,	we call,	we give.
<i>Second Person.</i>	you love,	you call,	you give.
<i>Third Person.</i>	they love,	they call,	they give.

Condensed Form

On examining the statement above given, we see that we may omit the designations of person and number, which the pronouns sufficiently indicate. Further, since the second person singular is, in ordinary use, the same as the second person plural, we omit it altogether from the conjugation. We may also avoid repeating identical forms as "*we love*," "*you love*," "*they love*," in immediate connection. The statement then becomes:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE*

I love,	I call,	I give.
he loves	he calls,	he gives.
we } love	we } call,	we } give
you }	you }	you }
they }	they }	they }

* NOTE.—For brevity of statement it is common to say, instead of "*the present tense of the indicative mode*," simply "*the present indicative*." So "*the past indicative*," "*the present subjunctive*," etc.

But we may present all these forms for each verb in a single line, as follows:

INDICATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

I **love**, he **loves**, we, you, they **love**.

I **call**, he **calls**, we, you, they **call**.

I **give**, he **gives**, we, you, they **give**.

Here the verb-form in full-faced type, as **love** or **loves**, is to be joined to the pronoun, or to any one of the several pronouns, immediately preceding it, so that "we, you, they **love**" is equivalent to "we **love**, you **love**, they **love**," etc. The person and number are sufficiently indicated by the pronoun. (See PERSONAL PRONOUNS, pp. 26-27.)

On account of the simplicity and compactness of this condensed form of statement, it will be used wherever practicable for all modes and tenses throughout the conjugations.

INDICATIVE MODE

PAST TENSE

I, he, we, you, they **loved**; (**called**); (**gave**).

That is all there is of the simple past tense of any verb except the verb *be*.* Nothing could be imagined more absolutely simple and easy. In all verbs except the verb *be*, when we have learned the form for the *first person singular* of the *past indicative*, we have learned the forms for *all persons* of both numbers, for there is no change.

* NOTE.—See CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*, p. 109.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

(If) I, he, we, you, they love (call) ; (give).

It will be seen that this differs from the present indicative only in the third person singular.

The indicative form of the third person singular, *loves*, *calls*, *gives*, is now very commonly used after *if*, in place of the subjunctive; as, "If he *calls*, I will see him."

PAST TENSE

(Same as the Past Indicative)

This is virtually to say that the subjunctive mode in any verb (except the verb *be*) has no past tense, the past indicative being used instead. The repetition of this form may therefore ordinarily be omitted.

IMPERATIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

Love; call; give.

INFINITIVE MODE

PRESENT TENSE

(To) love; (to) call; (to) give.

PARTICIPLES

PRESENT

Loving; calling; giving.

PAST

Loved; called; given.

EXERCISE

Give the principal parts of the following verbs (consulting as needed the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, pp. 120-124); conjugate the present and past indicative and

the present subjunctive mode of each verb; give the imperative of each; give the present infinitive, and the present and past participles of each.

Verbs.—(1) **Regular:** accost, address, appear, approach, believe, call, carry, defend, deliver, detain, fear, forward, frighten, grieve, hasten, lament, present, receive, relieve, strengthen, support, sustain, travel.

(2) **Irregular:** break, bring, burn, catch, come, dig, feed, fight, get, go, grow, hang, hit, hold, know, leave, make, mean, pay, quit, read, ride, see, set, shake, spring, swim, take, tear, wear, weep, write.

VERB-PHRASES

All other parts of the English verb are formed, not by inflection, but by the use of *auxiliary verbs*, often called *auxiliaries*. (See CONJUGATIONS OF AUXILIARY VERBS, pp. 100-110.)

There are eight auxiliary verbs, *viz.*: *be, can, do, have, may, must, shall, and will*.

The combinations of auxiliary with principal verbs form *verb-phrases*; as, *I will go; I shall have gone; It may succeed; That might have been done*.

REMARKS

In treating any one of these verb-phrases, *the entire phrase* is called *the verb*. Thus, in "*I will go*," the *verb* is not *will* nor *go*, but *will go*; in "*that might have been done*," the verb is not *might* nor *have* nor *been* nor *done*; but the entire verb-phrase *might have been done* is to be treated as the *verb*.

The same is true if any auxiliary, as often happens, is separated from the rest of the verb-phrase by intervening words; as, "*I will certainly go*"; here the *verb* is still *will go*. So if we say, "*that might possibly in such a case have been done*," the *verb* is still *might have been done*.

All the words of a verb-phrase are to be *taken together* to make the *verb* in any construction.

Conjugations of Auxiliary Verbs

HAVE

We will first consider *have* as the auxiliary* used in forming what are called the "perfect" tenses.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present
have

Past
had

Past Participle
had

Indicative Mode

Present Tense.—I *have*, he *has*,† we, you, they *have*.

Past Tense.—I, he, we, you, they *had*.†

Present Perfect and Past Perfect of all Verbs.—By adding to the present or past indicative of *have* the past participle of any verb, we obtain the *present perfect* or *past perfect* of the indicative mode of that verb. Thus:

Indicative Mode

Present Perfect Tense.—I *have*, he *has*, we you, they *have* loved; (called); (given).

Past Perfect Tense.—I, he, we, you, they *had* loved; (called); (given).

Here the auxiliary verb is in *italic*, and the participle of the principal verb in full-faced type. By adding either participle to the appropriate form of the pronoun and auxiliary we obtain the complete form for that mode, tense, person, and number of the principal verb; as, Present Perfect Tense, Second Person, Plural Number, you *have* loved.

Had rather, etc.—*Had* has peculiar use in such phrases as, "I *had* rather," "You *had* better," etc.

I *had* rather be a doorkeeper in the house of my God than to dwell in the tents of wickedness. Ps. 84:10.

* NOTE.—For the full conjugation of *have* as a principal verb, see p. 128.

† NOTE.—*Had* is a contraction of *haved*, and *has* is a contraction of *haves*.

I *had* rather be a dog, and bay the moon,
Than such a Roman.

SHAKESPEARE *Julius Caesar*, act iv, sc. 3, l. 27.

This is an accepted English idiom, which we need not try to explain.

CAUTION.—*Have* or *had* can not be used as an auxiliary of *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will*, or *ought*. Never say “I *had* ought” or “I’d ought.” (See OUGHT, p. 107.)

SHALL

Indicative Mode

Present Tense.—I, he, we, you, they *shall*;

Past Tense.—I, he, we, you, they *should*.

Shall, tho grammatically in the present tense, is used to express future action or state, either as a prediction, a command or a necessity. *Should* is used as an auxiliary of the past potential. (See p. 105.) So used, *should* often has the sense of obligation; “you *should* help him” is nearly equivalent to “you *ought* to help him.”

WILL

Present Tense.—I, he, we, you, they *will*;

Past Tense.—I, he, we, you, they *would*.

As an auxiliary,* *will*, tho grammatically in the present tense, is used to express future action either as a determination or purpose (in the First Person), or as simple prediction (in the Second or Third Person).

Would is used as an auxiliary of the Past Potential, to express wish or preference; as, I *would* go if possible.

Distinctions Between SHALL and WILL

The difference between the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries of the future tenses is one requiring careful study.

* NOTE.—*Will* is also used as a principal verb in the sense of “resolve,” “determine.” In this sense it is conjugated as a regular verb, (present) *will*, (past) *willed*, (past partic.) *willed*, (pres. indic., third pers. singular) he *wills*, etc.

Shall primarily denotes obligation.

In the first person, the sense of what I am *obliged* to do shades off into what I am *destined* to do, *sure* to do, and *shall* in the first person *simply denotes future fact*.

In the second and third persons the obligation is felt to be imposed by the person speaking; hence, "he *shall*," "you *shall*" or "they *shall*," means, "I will compel you, him, or them so to act."

Sometimes these phrases "you *shall*," "he *shall*," "they *shall*," mean, "you, (he or they) will be compelled by the nature of things or by the circumstances of the case." Consequently "you," "he," or "they *shall*" expresses in such cases *necessity* or assured certainty; as "They that wait on the Lord *shall* renew their strength."

Will primarily denotes purpose or intention.

Will in the first person denotes *purpose or intention* of the person or persons speaking; "I *will* go" means, "I *intend* to go"; if strongly emphasized it means, "I *am resolved* to go," in spite of any hindrance or opposition. "We *will* go" has similar meaning.

In the second and third persons, "you," "he," or "they" *will* go, means it is understood that "you," "he," or "they" are intending to go; "you," "he," or "they" may be expected to go. Hence, "you," "he," or "they *will* go" expresses *simple future action* which is not compelled.

Accordingly, we have two parallel sets of futures, in which *shall* and *will* change about, according to the persons referred to, *viz.*, 1. The *Declarative Future*, expressing simple future fact; 2. The *Purposive Future*, expressing intention, obligation, command, or necessity. Thus:

The Declarative Future.

I shall	}	love (call) (give)
he will,		
we shall,		
you will,		
they will.		

The Purposive Future

I will,	}	love (call) (give)
he shall,		
we will,		
you shall,		
they shall.		

Thus by adding to the auxiliary forms above given the pure infinitive (the infinitive without *to*) of any verb, we obtain the Declarative Future or the Purposive Future of that verb, as follows:

INDICATIVE MODE

Future Tense (declarative).—I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you *will*, they *will love*.

Future Tense (purposive).—I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you *shall*, they *shall love*.

We have likewise two forms of the Future Perfect Tense, Declarative and Purposive. This tense adds *have* to the simple future in *shall* or *will*, and puts after this combined form the past participle of any verb. Thus:

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

(Declarative)		(Purposive)	
I <i>shall</i>	} <i>have loved</i> (called) (given)	I <i>will</i>	} <i>have loved</i> (called) (given)
he <i>will</i>		he <i>shall</i>	
we <i>shall</i>		we <i>will</i>	
you <i>will</i>		you <i>shall</i>	
they <i>will</i>		they <i>shall</i>	

By adding the two words in the upper line beyond the brace in either group to either of the preceding auxiliary forms, we obtain the form of the Future Perfect Tense for that person and number; as, I *shall have loved*; they *will have loved*; etc. The past participle of any other verb, as *called*, *given*, etc., may be substituted for *loved*.

The Future and Future Perfect Tenses are found only in the Indicative Mode.

EXERCISE

(1) How many auxiliary verbs are there? Repeat the list of auxiliaries in alphabetical order.

(2) Give the conjugation of *have* as an auxiliary verb (only the forms in auxiliary use to be given).

(3) Conjugate the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*.

(4) Conjugate the indicative mode and the present and present perfect subjunctive of each verb in the Exercise on p. 99, paying particular attention to the *declarative* and *purposive* forms of the future and future perfect indicative.

Future Forms in Interrogative Sentences.—In interrogative sentences, however, *will* is not used with the *first person*, since the speaker knows what he intends or purposes, and does not need to ask.

Do not say, "*Will* I mail this letter?" For the first person of a question with simple future meaning, *shall* must be used; tho it also carries something of the inquiry: "Is it your will?" As, "*Shall* I mail this letter?" "*Shall* we go to dinner?" For the second person, with simple future meaning, *shall* is used interrogatively in place of *will*. "*Shall* you go?" is a simple question as to the future, to which we expect the answer "*I shall*" or "*I shall not*." "*Will* you go?" is a question as to purpose, expecting the answer "*I will*" or "*I will not*."

Auxiliaries of the Potential Mode

MAY

Indicative Mode

Present Tense: I, he, we, you, they **may**.

Past Tense: I, he, we, you, they **might**.

May denotes possibility as, "*I may* (or *might*) go"; or, in interrogative use, a request, as "*May* I come in?"; or, in exclamatory use, a wish or entreaty; as, "*May* all good attend you!"

CAN

Indicative Mode

Present Tense: I, he, we, you, they **can**.

Past Tense: I, he, we, you, they **could**.

Can denotes possibility.

CAUTION.—It is not well to use *can* as expressing permission, tho this is often done; as, "*Can* I go home?" *May* is the appropriate word for permission—"May I go home?"

MUST

Indicative Mode, Present Tense.—I, he, we, you, they **must**.

Must expresses absolute or imperative necessity, without change of mode, tense, person, or number.

POTENTIAL MODE

Present Tense

I	}	<i>may, can, or must</i>	<i>love</i>
he			
we			
you			
they			
			(call)
			(give)

Present Perfect Tense

I	}	<i>may, can, or must have</i>	<i>loved</i>
he			
we			
you			
they			
			(called)
			(given)

Past Tense

I	}	<i>might, could, would, or should</i>	<i>love</i>
he			
we			
you			
they			
			(call)
			(give)

Past Perfect Tense

I	}	<i>might, could, would, or should have</i>	<i>loved</i>
he			
we			
you			
they			
			(called)
			(given)

DO

(In Auxiliary Use)

Do, as an auxiliary,* is used only in the present and past indicative and subjunctive and in the imperative; as, *Do you hear the music?* *I did not notice;* *Do come in.*

* NOTE.—*Do*, as a principal verb, in the sense of "perform," "accomplish," has the full conjugation of an irregular verb: *Principal Parts, do, did, done.*

Present Indicative.—I **do**, he **does**, we, you, they **do**.

Past Indicative.—I, he, we, you, they **did**.

Present Subjunctive.—(If) I, he, we, you, they **do**.

Past Subjunctive.—(Same as Past Indicative.)

Imperative.—**do**.

ERROR.—The use of the past participle, *done*, as an auxiliary, as "He is *done* gone," is a vulgarism.

As an auxiliary, *do* is used in either of three ways:

(1) ***Do* as the Auxiliary of Emphasis.**—*Do* is used for emphatic affirmation; as, "I *do* believe you"; "I *did* hear those words."

When used as an emphatic auxiliary, the past form *did* often implies some subsequent change; as, "I *did* intend to go (but have now decided otherwise, or become doubtful)."

(2) ***Do* as the Auxiliary of Interrogation.**—*Do* is used at the beginning of a sentence in asking a question; as, "*Do* you know the facts?"; "*Did* you meet any one at the door?"

We never now use a principal verb in interrogation; as, "*Came* you yesterday?" In present and past interrogative sentences, the forms with *do* and *did* have wholly superseded the direct forms. "*Know* you the facts?" "*Met* you any one?" would seem so antiquated as to be ridiculous, and would not even be readily understood.

(3) ***Do* as the Auxiliary of Negation.**—*Do* is constantly used in denial, with *not* or other adverb interposed between the auxiliary and its verb; as, "I *did not go*"; "I *do not* at present *intend* to go."

Such forms as "I *went not*," "I *saw not*" are wholly out of use in current speech or literature. Where *not* is used alone with a verb there is commonly another verb understood; as, "I think (it is) *not*"; "I will *not* (*go, do, or the like*)."

The Semi-Auxiliaries OUGHT and LET

These verbs resemble auxiliaries in the fact that neither of them by itself expresses a complete meaning; they differ from auxiliaries in the fact that neither of them is necessary to the conjugation of any mode or tense of any other verb.

Ought further differs from the auxiliary verbs by taking after it the infinitive with *to*; as, I *ought* to go. *Ought* is used only as present indicative, expressing moral obligation, logical necessity, or (sometimes) reasonable expectation, thus:

Present Indicative.—I, he, we, you, they *ought*.

CAUTION.—*Ought* can never take *have*, *be*, or any other auxiliary; expressions like “You *don’t* ought,” “I *had* ought” are always erroneous. To express past obligation, use simply *ought* followed by the *perfect infinitive* of the accompanying verb; as, I *ought to have gone*.

Let has the full conjugation of an irregular verb. Its use as an apparent auxiliary is most common in the imperative mode when it is followed by an infinitive without *to*, that infinitive having as its subject (in the objective case) a pronoun of the first or third person, *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *them*, or any noun in the third person; as, *Let* me go; *Let* him come in; *Let* them state their case; *Let* the child sleep.

A Peculiar Idiom.—The phrase “let alone” is often used in a sense different from that which would be given by the words in their ordinary meaning. If we say, “Let the child alone,” that does not mean that the child is to be solitary. There may be many others present. The expression means, “Keep your hands off the child,” or “Do not interfere with the child.” “Leave alone” is similarly used. These expressions have been explained by supplying the word “be,” “Let the child *be* alone”; and we have in fact the expression, “Let

it *be*," used in similar sense, meaning let the person or thing *be* undisturbed. "*Leave* it *be*," "*leave* him go," etc., are sometimes heard, but are not in approved use.

Conjugation of the Verb

HAVE

(AS A PRINCIPAL VERB)

TENSES

Indicative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I have , he has , we, you, they, have .
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I <i>have</i> , he <i>has</i> , we, you, they, <i>have had</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they, had .
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they, <i>had had</i> .
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I <i>shall</i> , he <i>will</i> , we <i>shall</i> , you, they, <i>will have</i> .
(purposive)	I <i>will</i> , he <i>shall</i> , we <i>will</i> , you, they, <i>shall have</i> .
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	
(declarative)	I <i>shall</i> , he <i>will</i> , we <i>shall</i> , you, they, <i>will have had</i> .
(purposive)	I <i>will</i> , he <i>shall</i> , we <i>will</i> , you, they <i>shall have had</i> .

TENSES

Subjunctive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they have .
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they <i>have had</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	(Same as Indicative.)
<i>Past Perf.</i>	(Same as Indicative.)

Potential Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may</i> * have .
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may</i> * <i>have had</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might</i> † have .
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might</i> † <i>have had</i> .

Imperative Mode

have (thou or you)

* NOTE.—*Can* or *must* may be substituted for *may*.

† NOTE.—*Could*, *would*, or *should* may be substituted for *might*.

Infinitive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	have or to have.
<i>Perfect.</i>	to have had.

Participles

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
having	had	having had.

EXERCISE

(1) Name the auxiliaries of the potential mode, (a) in the present tense; (b) in the past tense.

(2) Conjugate the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, and *must*. Tell from what verbs *could* and *should* are obtained.

(3) Give all tenses in the potential mode of the verbs listed in the Exercise on p. 99.

(4) Explain the three uses of *do* as an auxiliary. With what modes and tenses is it used?

Conjugation of the Verb

BE

PRINCIPAL PARTS

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
be	was	been

TENSES

Indicative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I am, he is, we, you, they are.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I have been, he has been, we, you, they, have been.
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, was, we, you, they, were.
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they, had been.
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I shall, he will, we shall, you, they, will be.
(purposive)	I will, he shall, we will, you, they, shall be.
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	
(declarative)	I shall, he will, we shall, you, they, will have been.
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	
(purposive)	I will, he shall, we will, you, they, shall have been.

TENSES

Subjunctive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they be.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they <i>have been.</i>
<i>Past.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they were.
<i>Past Perf.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they <i>had been.</i>

Potential Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may be.</i>
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may have been.</i>
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might be.</i>
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might have been.</i>

Imperative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	be (thou <i>or</i> you) <i>or do</i> (thou <i>or</i> you) be.
-----------------	---

Infinitive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	be <i>or to be.</i>
<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>to have been.</i>

Participles

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
being	been	<i>having been</i>

REMARKS

(1) *Be* is used, tho somewhat rarely, as a principal verb, equivalent to "exist"; as, Whatever *is* (exists) is right.

(2) As an auxiliary, *be* is joined:

(a) With the present participle of any verb, to denote continued or progressive action; as, I *am* coming; The tree *is* falling. (See PROGRESSIVE CONJUGATION, p. 115.)

(b) With the past participle to express the action of the verb with passive force; as, The bird *was* killed; The signal *was* given. (See PASSIVE VOICE, p. 113.)

(3) *Be* is also used as a connecting verb (frequently called the *copula*, or "link") connecting the subject with something affirmed of the subject; as, I *am* the man; Truth *is* mighty.

Conjugation of the Regular Verb

LOVE

| PRINCIPAL PARTS

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
love	loved	loved

ACTIVE VOICE

TENSES

Indicative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I love, he loves, we, you, they love.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I have, he has, we, you, they have loved.
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they loved.
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they had loved.
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I shall, he will, we shall, you, they will love.
(purposive)	I will, he shall, we will, you, they shall love.
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	
(declarative)	I shall, he will, we shall, you, they will have loved.
(purposive)	I will, he shall, we will, you, they shall have loved.

TENSES

*Subjunctive Mode**

<i>Present.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they love.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they have loved.

Potential Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I, he, we, you, they may† love.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they may† have loved.
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they might‡ love.
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they might‡ have loved.

Imperative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	love (thou or you); do (thou or you) love.
-----------------	--

* NOTE.—The Past and Past Perfect Tenses of the Indicative are used without change in conditional sentences with *if*, etc. The Subjunctive has no special forms for these tenses.

† NOTE.—Instead of *may* we may use *can* or *must*.

‡ NOTE.—Instead of *might* we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Infinitive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	(to) love.
<i>Perfect.</i>	(to) have loved.

Participles

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
loving	loved	having loved

**Conjugation of the Irregular Verb
GIVE**

PRINCIPAL PARTS

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
give	gave	given

ACTIVE VOICE

TENSES

Indicative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I give, he gives, we, you, they give.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I have, he has, we, you, they have given.*
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they gave.
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they had given.
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I shall, he will, we shall, you, they will give.
(purposive)	I will, he shall, we will, you, they shall give.
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	
(declarative)	I shall, he will, we shall, you, they will have given.
(purposive)	I will, he shall, we will, you, they shall have given.

TENSES

Subjunctive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they give.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	(If) I, he, we, you, they have given.
	(For the Past and Past Perfect, the Indicative forms are used throughout.)

* CAUTION.—In conjugating an irregular verb, never use the *past tense* instead of the *past participle* after any form of *have*. Never say, "I have gave," but "I have given"; never "I had went," but "I had gone"; not "I have saw," "I have came," but "I have seen," "I have come," etc.

Potential Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may give.</i>
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may have given.</i>
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might give.</i>
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might have given.</i>

NOTE.—Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must*; instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Imperative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	give (thou or you); <i>do</i> (thou or you) give.
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Infinitive Mode

<i>Present.</i>	(to) give.
<i>Perfect.</i>	(to) <i>have given.</i>

Participles

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
giving	given	<i>having given</i>

PASSIVE VOICE

Turn to the CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE* (p. 109), and add the Past Participle **loved** to the forms given for every mode and tense of *be*; in the list of participles, add *loved* to the Present Participle and the Perfect Participle of *be*, but substitute *loved* for the Past Participle *been*, to form the passive voice of the verb *love*, as follows:

TENSES

Indicative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>am</i> , he <i>is</i> , we, you, they <i>are</i> loved.
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I <i>have</i> , he <i>has</i> , we, you, they <i>have been</i> loved.
<i>Past.</i>	I, he <i>was</i> , we, you, they <i>were</i> loved.
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>had been</i> loved.
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I <i>shall</i> , he <i>will</i> , we <i>shall</i> , you, they <i>will be</i> loved.
(purposive)	I <i>will</i> , he <i>shall</i> , we <i>will</i> , you, they <i>shall be</i> loved.

Fut. Perf.

(declarative) I *shall*, he *will*, we *shall*, you, they *will*||*have been loved*.

(purposive) I *will*, he *shall*, we *will*, you, they *shall*|| *have been loved*.

TENSES

Subjunctive Mode

Present. (If) I, he, we, you, they *be loved*.

Pres. Perf. (If) I, he, we, you, they *have*||*been loved*.

Past. (If) I, he, we, you, they *were loved*.

Past Perf. (If) I, he, we, you, they *had*||*been loved*.

Potential Mode

Present. I, he, we, you, they *may be loved*.

Pres. Perf. I, he, we, you, they *may have*||*been loved*.

Past. I, he, we, you, they *might be loved*.

Past Perf. I, he, we, you, they *might have*||*been loved*.

NOTE.—Instead of *may*, we may use *can* or *must*; instead of *might*, we may use *could*, *would*, or *should*.

Imperative Mode

Present. *be* (thou or you) *loved*, or *do* (thou or you) *be loved*.

Infinitive Mode

Present. (to) *be loved*.

Perfect. (to) *have been loved*.

Participles

Present
being loved

Past
loved

Perfect
having been loved

EXERCISE

Turn to the CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE* (p. 109), and from that form the Passive Voice of each of the following verbs by adding its past participle to the various forms of the verb *be*, except that you *substitute* in each case the past participle of the principal verb for the past participle *been*.

If any of the verbs are irregular, look up their past participles in the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, pp. 120-124

Verbs to be Conjugated in the Passive Voice.*—Call, give, see, hear, think, believe, receive, discover, expect, say, tell, place, set, station.

The Progressive Conjugation

It is often desirable to represent an action as continuous at any time mentioned or thought of. For that purpose the *present participle* of the principal verb is associated with any form of the auxiliary *be*; as, I *am waiting* for an answer.

The progressive conjugation differs from the passive in that (1) it is active in meaning, and (2) it adds the **present** instead of the **past** participle to the various forms of the verb *be*. Thus:

Indicative Mode

PRESENT
TENSE

I *am*, he *is*, we, you, they *are* WORKING.

So, throughout the entire conjugation of the verb *be*, simply adding the present participle of any verb to any mode, tense, or participle of *be* gives the progressive form of the verb whose present participle is thus added.

EXERCISE

Turn to the CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE* (p. 109), and from that form the *Progressive Conjugation* of each of the following verbs by adding its present participle to each of the various forms of the verb *be*.

Verbs to be Conjugated in the Progressive Form.—Call, give, see, hear, think, hope, believe, receive, expect, say, tell, do, go, work, wish, act, plan.

Is Being Built.—The passive use of the progressive form, of which this phrase is a type, has been strongly censured by many critics, but has made its way into accepted use as supplying a manifest need of the language.

Some would substitute an old use of the form in *ing* (see p. 91), and say "The house is *building*." But this usage has

* NOTE.—This exercise may be given orally or in writing, preferably both, changing from one to the other, to secure command of both the written and the spoken style.

almost disappeared from modern English, and would ordinarily be regarded as pedantic.

Are those papers copied yet?

They are being copied as fast as possible.

What substitute can be offered for this?

"They are *copying*," is a mode of expression unusual in current speech, and would seem unnatural. "They are in process of copying" would be very formal. The only way effectually to avoid the form objected to is by circumlocution, saying, "The typewriters *are copying* them," or "We are *having them copied*."

This joining of the present to the past participle to express progressive action—"They *are being copied*"—is a usage that may be accepted as an established idiom in modern English.

Change from Active to Passive.—A transitive form in the active voice may be changed to the passive voice by making the object of the active verb the subject of the passive form, and making the subject of the active verb the object of the preposition *by*; as, (active) The *engine* draws the *train*; (passive) The *train* is drawn *by* the *engine*.

EXERCISE

(1) Change the following sentences from the active to the passive form. Consult as needed the LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, pp. 120-124.

A stranger met him at the door. A friend helped him home. A messenger brought the letter. The teacher explained the lesson. All the children told the same story.

(2) Change the following sentences from the passive to the active form.

The work was well done by him. A successful flight was made by the airship. The goods were delivered by the express agent. The bill was promptly signed by the president. The game was saved by a home-run. The town was destroyed by a cyclone.

Negative and Interrogative Forms

In present-day English the subject (noun or pronoun) always follows the first auxiliary in interrogation. The negative adverb, *not*, follows the first auxiliary in negation. *Never* is, however, freely used with a principal verb; as, I *never* said that. In the present and past indicative, *do*, *does* or *did* is commonly supplied as an auxiliary in negative or interrogative use (see *DO*, p. 105). Thus:

TENSES

Indicative Mode

(Negative Form)

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>do</i> , he <i>does</i> , we, you, they <i>do</i> NOT wish .
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>did</i> NOT intend .
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I <i>have</i> , he <i>has</i> , we, you, they <i>have</i> NOT called .
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I <i>shall</i> , he <i>will</i> , we <i>shall</i> , you, they <i>will</i> NOT call .
(purposive)	I <i>will</i> , he <i>shall</i> , we <i>will</i> , you <i>shall</i> , they <i>shall</i> NOT call .

(Interrogative Form)

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Do</i> I, <i>does</i> he, <i>do</i> we, you, they wish ?
<i>Past.</i>	<i>Did</i> I, he, we, you, they intend ?
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	<i>Have</i> I, <i>has</i> he, <i>have</i> we, you, they called ?
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	<i>Shall</i> I, <i>will</i> he, <i>shall</i> we, <i>will</i> you, they call ?
(purposive)	—*, <i>shall</i> he, —*, <i>shall</i> you, they call ?

TENSES

Potential Mode

(Negative Form)

<i>Present.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>may</i> NOT come .
<i>Past.</i>	I, he, we, you, they <i>might</i> NOT come .

(Interrogative Form)

<i>May</i> I, he, we, you, they come ?
<i>Might</i> I, he, we, you, they come ?

*NOTE.—The forms of the first person with *will* are never used interrogatively. We know our own purpose, and do not ask other people what it is.

Negative-Interrogative Forms

When the negative and interrogative forms are combined, the subject usually follows the first auxiliary, and the negative follows the subject; as, *Are you NOT reading?* *Will they NOT answer?*

Sometimes the negative adverb precedes the subject, with the effect of emphasizing the subject; as, *Did NOT I give that order?*

Contracted Forms

In conversation various contractions of the negative forms are frequently used; as, *I haven't*, *I don't*, *He didn't*, *Isn't* it? etc.; *won't* is used as a contraction of *will not*, in all persons and numbers. These forms are not used in literary style or in formal letters or documents.

CAUTIONS

(1) *Don't* (for *do not*) can not be used in the third person singular, since we can not say, "he *do not*" (except in the subjunctive mood, "[If] he *do not*." Never say "He *don't*" or "*Don't* he?" but, "He *doesn't*" or "*Doesn't* he?"

(2) *Ain't* (for *are not*) is never proper; "I *ain't*" and "he *ain't*" ("I *are not*"—"he *are not*") are especially bad.

(3) Often it is better to contract the auxiliary, rather than the negative; as, *I'm not*, *he's not*, *they're not*, *I've not*, etc.; "*I'll not*" (for "*I will not*") is more elegant than "*I won't*," tho less emphatic.

EXERCISE

Point out all the finite verbs, infinitives, and participles in the following extracts; tell which of the verbs so represented are *regular* and which *irregular* (see LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS, pp. 120-124); tell the mode and tense of each finite verb; explain the use of each infinitive (with or

without *to*); give the name of each participle (present past, etc.).

From morn
To noon he fell, from noon to dewy eve,
A summer's day; and with the setting sun
Dropt from the zenith like a falling star.
MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. i, l. 742.

How far that little candle throws his beams!
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.
SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act v, sc. 1.

I am in earnest—I will not equivocate—I will not excuse—
I will not retreat a single inch; AND I WILL BE HEARD.—
WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON *Salutatory of the Liberator*, vol. 1,
no. 1, Jan. 1, 1831.

Let us have faith that Right makes Might, and in that
faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand
it.—ABRAHAM LINCOLN *Address. New York City. Feb. 21,*
1859.

A Sensitive Plant in a garden grew,
And the young winds fed it with silver dew,
And it opened its fan-like leaves to the light,
And closed them beneath the kisses of night.
SHELLEY *The Sensitive Plant*, pt. i.

A sculptor wields
The chisel, and the stricken marble grows
To beauty.
BRYANT *The Flood of Years*.

And hearts resolved and hands prepared
The blessings they enjoy to guard.
SMOLLET *Humphrey Clinker.—Leven Water*.

It never frightened a Puritan when you bade him stand still and listen to the speech of God. His closet and his church were full of the reverberations of the awful, gracious, beautiful voice for which he listened.—PHILLIPS BROOKS *Sermons. The Seriousness of Life.*

Among the natural rights of the colonists are these: First a right to life, secondly to liberty, thirdly to property; together with the right to defend them in the best manner they can.—SAMUEL ADAMS *Statement of the Rights of the Colonists*, etc. 1772.

Bird of the broad and sweeping wing,
Thy home is high in heaven,
Where wide the storms their banners fling,
And the tempest clouds are driven.
PERCIVAL *To the Eagle.*

IRREGULAR VERBS

(Including Defective and Redundant Verbs)

Irregular Verbs are those that form the past tense and past participle otherwise than by adding *ed* (p. 78); as, *give, take*.

Special Note.—The Irregular Verbs must be learned by heart. For such learning there is no substitute; no “royal road” can evade it. It is easily done by taking a certain number each day, till the two hundred in the list are learned.

Defective Verbs are those that lack some of the principal parts; as, *can, shall*.

Redundant Verbs are those that have more than one form for the past tense or past participle; as, *shrink, swell*.

The letter R. (*regular*) added to any form indicates that the regular form for that part of the verb is also used. (All verbs marked R. are *redundant*. Thus, the *regular* form, *awaked* may be used as the past tense or past participle of *awake*, instead of the irregular forms given.)

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Abide	abode	abode	Break	{ broke	broke
Arise	arose	arisen		{ brake	broken
Awake	awoke, R	awoke, R.	Breed	bred	bred
Be	was	been	Bring	brought	brought
Bear	{ bore }	{ born }	Build	built, R.	built, R.
(Bring forth)			Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
Bear (<i>carry</i>)	bore	borne	Burst	burst	burst
Beat	beat	{ beaten	Buy	bought	bought
		{ beat	Can	could	—
Become	became	become	Cast	cast	cast
Befall	befell	befallen	Catch	caught	caught
Beget	{ begot	begotten	Chide	{ chid	chidden
	{ begat	begot		{ chode	chid
Begin	{ began }	begun	Choose	chose	chosen
	{ begun }		Cleave	clave, R.	cleaved
Behold	beheld	beheld	(<i>adhere</i>)		
Belay	belaid, R	belaid, R	Cleave (<i>split</i>)	{ cleft	cleft
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.		{ clove	cloven
Bereave	bereft, R	bereft, R		{ clave	cleaved
Beseech	besought	besought	Cling	clung	clung
Bet	bet, R.	bet, R.	Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.
Bid	{ bid	bid	Come	came	come
	{ bade	bidden	Cost	cost	cost
Bind	bound	{ bound	Creep	crept	crept
		{ bounden	Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Bite	bit	{ bitten	Cut	cut	cut
		{ bit	Dare	durst, R.	dared
Bleed	bled	bled	Deal	dealt	dealt
Blend	blent, R.	blent, R.	Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Bless	blest, R.	blest, R.	Do	did	done
Blow	blew	blown	Draw	drew	drawn
			Dream	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Dress	drest, R.	drest, R.	Hide	hid	hidden
Drink	drank	{ drunk drunken	Hit	hit	hit
Drive	drove	driven	Hold	held	{ held holden
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.	Hurt	hurt	hurt
Eat	{ ate } { eat }	eaten	Keep	kept	kept
Engrave	engraved	engraven, R	Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R
Fall	fell	fallen	Knit	knit, R.	knit, R.
Feed	fed	fed	Know	knew	known
Feel	felt	felt	Lade	laded	laden, R.
Fight	fought	fought	Lay	laid	laid
Find	found	found	Lead	led	led
Flee	fled	fled	Lean	leant, R.	leant, R.
Fling	flung	flung	Leap	leapt, R.	leapt, R.
Fly	flew	flown	Learn	learnt, R.	learnt, R
Forbear	forbore	forborne	Leave	left	left
Forbid	forbade	{ forbidden forbid	Lend	lent	lent
Forget	forgot	{ forgotten forgot	Let (<i>permit</i>)	let	let
Forsake	forsook	forsaken	Let (<i>hinder</i>)	let, R.	let, R.
Freeze	froze	frozen	Lie* (<i>recline</i>)	lay	lain
Get	got	{ got gotten	Light	lit, R.	lit, R.
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.	Lose	lost	lost
Gird	girt, R.	girt, R.	Make	made	made
Give	gave	given	May	might	_____
Go	went	gone	Mean	meant	meant
Grave	graved	graven, R.	Meet	met	met
Grind	ground	ground	Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Grow	grew	grown	Must	_____	_____
Hang	hung, R.	hung, R.	Ought	_____	_____
Have	had	had	Pass	past, R.	past, R.
Hear	heard	heard	Pay	paid	paid
Heave	hove, R.	hove, R.	Pen† (<i>enclose</i>)	pent, R.	pent, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.	Plead	plead, R.	plead, R.
			Put	put	put
			Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.
			_____	quoth	_____
			Rap‡ (<i>seize</i>)	rapt, R.	rapt, R.

* *Lie* (falsify) is regular (*lied, lied*).

† *Pen* (write) is regular (*penned, penned*).

‡ *Rap* (strike) is regular (*rapped, rapped*).

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Read	read	read	Slay	slew	slain
Reave	reft, R.	reft, R.	Slide	slid	{ slid slidden
Rend	rent, R.	rent, R.	Sling	slung	slung
Rid	rid	rid	Slink	slunk	slunk
Ride	rode	ridden	Slit	slit, R.	slit, R.
Ring* (sound)	{ rang } { rung }	rung	Smell	smelt, R.	smelt, R.
Rise	rose	risen	Smite	{ smote smit }	smitten smit
Rive	rived	riven, R.	Sow	sowed	sown, R.
Run	ran	run	Speak	spoke	spoken
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.	Speed	sped	sped
Say	said†	said†	Spell	spelt, R.	spelt, R.
See	saw	seen	Spend	spent	spent
Seek	sought	sought	Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Seethe	sod, R.	sodden, R.	Spin	{ spun } { span }	spun
Sell	sold	sold	Spit‡	spat	spit
Send	sent	sent	(expectorate)		
Set	set	set	Split	split	split
Shake	shook	shaken	Spoil	spoilt, R.	spoilt, R.
Shall	should	—	Spread	spread	spread
Shape	shaped	shapen, R.	Spring	{ sprang } { sprung }	sprung
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.	Stand	stood	stood
Shear	shore, R.	shorn, R.	Stave	stove, R.	stove, R.
Shed	shed	shed	Stay	staid, R.	staid, R.
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.	Steal	stole	stolen
Shoe	shod	shod	Stick	stuck	stuck
Shoot	shot	shot	Sting	stung	stung
Show	showed	shown, R.	Stink	{ stunk } { stank }	stunk
Shred	shred, R.	shred, R.	Strew	strewn	strewn, R.
Shrink	{ shrank } { shrank }	shrunk shrunk	Stride	strode	stridden
Shut	shut	shut	Strike	struck	{ struck stricken }
Sing	{ sang } { sung }	sung	String	strung	strung
Sink	{ sank } { sunk }	sunk			
Sit	sat	sat			

* *Ring* (surround) is regular (*ringed, ringed*).

† Pronounced *sed*.

‡ *Spit* (transfix) is regular (*spitted, spitted*).

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Strive	strove	striven	Tread	trod	{ trodden
Strow	strowed	strown, R.			{ trod
Swear	{ swore }	sworn	Wake	woke, R.	{ woke, R.
	{ sware }		Wax	waxed	{ waxen, R.
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.	Wear	wore	{ worn
Sweep	swept	swept,	Weave	wove, R.	{ woven, R.
Swell	swelled	swollen, R	Wed	wed, R.	{ wed, R.
Swim	{ swam }	swum	Weep	wept	{ wept
	{ swum }		Wet	wet, R.	{ wet, R.
Swing	swung	swung	Whet	whet, R.	{ whet, R.
Take	took	taken	Will	would	—
Teach	taught	taught	Win	won	won
Tear	tore	torn	Wind	wound	wound
Tell	told	told	Wit }	wist	—
Think	thought	thought	Wot }		
Thrive	throve, R.	thriven, R.	Work	wrought, R.	wrought, P
Throw	threw	thrown	Wring	wrung	wrung
Thrust	thrust	thrust	Write	wrote	written

THE ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE

Personal forms have almost disappeared* from the English verb. The forms of the second person singular (with *thou*), are now rarely used, while certain ancient forms of the third person singular are still occasionally found. Those forms will now be explained.

The "Thou System"

The usage of the verb in the second person singular has been found the great stumbling-block for pupils and the chief hindrance in learning the conjugation of verbs, where the forms with *thou* are often the only break in the otherwise complete unit of the verb system; as, "*thou didst*," breaking the otherwise complete unity of "*I, he, we, you, they did*." As these forms are practically obsolete except in religious use, or as survivals in our older literature, or as used in modern works in imitation of the

* NOTE.—The regular form of the third person singular of the Indicative Mode, previously explained (see p. 94), need not here be considered.

ancient style, it has been deemed best to group them here for ready reference, when required, leaving the forms in modern use to be learned rapidly and easily without their incumbrance or interruption.

The form of the verb used with *thou* in the second person singular is obtained by adding *st* or *est* to the form used with *I* in the first person singular; as, *I love*, *thou lovest*; *I give*, *thou givest*; *I loved*, *thou lovedst*; *I gave*, *thou gavest*, etc.*

EXCEPTIONS

(1) *Have* contracts *havest* to *hast* (*thou hast*); *do* contracts *doest* to *dost* (*thou dost*); *shall* takes the form *shalt*; and *will*, the form *wilt* (*thou shalt*, *thou wilt*); *must* is unchanged in all persons and in both numbers; *be* forms the second person singular *art*, in the present indicative (*thou art*), and the second person singular *wast*, in the past indicative (*thou wast*).

(2) The Subjunctive Mode uses in the second person singular the form of the verb which is used with the first person, this form continuing unchanged for all persons in both numbers; as, (if) *I love*, (if) *thou love*, etc. Special forms of the verb *be*—(if) *thou be*, (if) *thou wert*, etc.—will be found under the conjugation of the verb *BE*, later given.

(3) The Imperative Mode uses the root-form of the verb—*love* *thou*, *go ye or you*, etc. The Modern Style usually omits the pronoun, *thou*, which, however, is always understood.

The Third Person Singular

The Ancient Style added *th* or *eth* to the form of the verb used in the first person, where the Modern Style adds *s* or *es* (p. 94); as, *I love*, *he loveth*.

Haveth was contracted to *hath*, and *doeth* to *doth*.

* NOTE.—The forms of the second person singular used by the Society of Friends differ in many ways from the ancient literary style, and constitute a special religious phraseology peculiar to that communion. These need not here be considered.

In the following statement, the forms for all persons of the singular number in the Ancient or Solemn Style are given, in order to keep the unity of the conjugations. The plural forms, involving no change, are not here given.

AUXILIARY VERBS

HAVE

The forms of *have* in auxiliary use will be found in the full conjugation of *have* as a principal verb, below.

TENSES

SHALL

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>shall</i> , thou <i>shalt</i> , he <i>shall</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I <i>should</i> , thou <i>shouldst</i> , he <i>should</i> .

WILL

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>will</i> , thou <i>wilt</i> , he <i>will</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I <i>would</i> , thou <i>wouldst</i> , he <i>would</i> .

MAY

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>may</i> , thou <i>mayst</i> , he <i>may</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I <i>might</i> , thou <i>mightst</i> , he <i>might</i> .

CAN

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>can</i> , thou <i>canst</i> , he <i>can</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I <i>could</i> , thou <i>couldst</i> , he <i>could</i> .

MUST

<i>Present.</i>	I, thou, he <i>must</i> . (No change.)
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DO*

Indicative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	I <i>do</i> , thou <i>dost</i> , he <i>doth</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I <i>did</i> , thou <i>didst</i> , he <i>did</i> .

* NOTE.—*Do*, as a principal verb, has the full conjugation of an irregular verb. Only the forms in auxiliary use are above given.

Subjunctive Mode

Present. (If) I, thou, he *do*.

Imperative Mode

Present. *do* thou.

BE*

Indicative Mode

Present. I *am*, thou *art*, he *is*.

Pres. Perfect. I *have*, thou *hast*, he *hath been*.

Past. I *was*, thou *wast*, he *was*.

Past. Perfect. I *had*, thou *hadst*, he *had been*.

Future:

(declarative) I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will be*.

(purposive) I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall be*.

Fut. Perfect:

(declarative) I *shall*, thou *wilt*, he *will||have been*.

(purposive) I *will*, thou *shalt*, he *shall||have been*.

Subjunctive Mode

Present. (If) I, thou, he *be*.

Pres. Perfect. (If) I, thou, he *have been*.

Past. (If) I *were*, thou *wert*, he *were*.

Past. Perfect. (Same as *Past Perfect Indicative*.)

Potential Mode

(Second Person only)†

Present. thou *mayst*, *canst*, or *must be*.

Pres. Perfect. thou *mayst*, *canst*, or *must||have been*.

Past. thou *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst be*.

Past. Perfect. thou *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst||have been*.

Imperative Mode

be thou, or *do* thou *be*.

* NOTE.—*Be* is an auxiliary, in all its forms, so that its conjugation is the same, whether *be* is regarded as an auxiliary or as a principal verb.

† NOTE.—The first and third person singular are the same as in modern style.

THE SEMI-AUXILIARIES

LET*

TENSES

Indicative Mode

Present. I let, thou lettest, he letteth.

Subjunctive Mode

Present. (If) I, thou, he let.

Imperative Mode

let thou, or do thou let.

OUGHT

Present. I ought, thou oughtest, he ought.

PRINCIPAL VERBS

HAVE†

Indicative Mode

Present. I have, thou hast, he hath.

Pres. Perfect. I have, thou hast, he hath had.

Past. I had, thou hadst, he had.

Past. Perfect. I had, thou hadst, he had had.

Future:

(declarative) I shall, thou wilt, he will have.

(purposive) I will, thou shalt, he shall have.

Fut. Perfect:

(declarative) I shall, thou wilt, he will||have had.

(purposive) I will, thou shalt, he shall||have had.

Subjunctive Mode

Present. (If) I, thou, he have.

Pres. Perfect. (If) I, thou, he have had.

(Past and Past Perfect same as in the Indicative.)

* NOTE.—*Let* has the ordinary conjugation in all modes and tenses of an irregular verb. Only the forms having some peculiarity in the Ancient Style are above given. In the often quoted text, "Now *lettest* thou thy servant depart in peace" (*Luke* 2: 29), the verb "*lettest*" is not the imperative, but the present indicative, second person singular, equivalent to "thou dost *let*" or "thou art *letting*."

† NOTE.—The auxiliary uses of *have* are here included.

Potential Mode

TENSES (Second Person only given)

<i>Present.</i>	thou <i>mayst, canst, or must have.</i>
<i>Pres. Perfect.</i>	thou <i>mayst, canst, or must have had.</i>
<i>Past.</i>	thou <i>mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have.</i>
<i>Past. Perfect.</i>	thou <i>mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have had.</i>

Imperative Mode

<i>Present.</i>	have thou, or <i>do</i> thou have.
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LOVE

ACTIVE VOICE

Indicative Mode

TENSES

<i>Present.</i>	I love , thou lovest , he loveth .
<i>Pres. Perfect.</i>	I <i>have</i> , thou <i>hast</i> , he <i>hath loved</i> .
<i>Past.</i>	I loved , thou lovedst , he loved .
<i>Past. Perfect.</i>	I <i>had</i> , thou <i>hadst</i> , he <i>had loved</i> .
<i>Future:</i>	
(declarative)	I <i>shall</i> , thou <i>wilt</i> , he <i>will love</i> .
(purposive)	I <i>will</i> , thou <i>shalt</i> , he <i>shall love</i> .
<i>Fut. Perfect:</i>	
(declarative)	I <i>shall</i> , thou <i>wilt</i> , he <i>will have loved</i> .
(purposive)	I <i>will</i> , thou <i>shalt</i> , he <i>shall have loved</i> .

*Subjunctive Mode**

<i>Present.</i>	(If) I, thou, he love .
<i>Pres. Perfect</i>	(If) I, thou, he <i>have loved</i> .
	(<i>Past and Past Perfect same as in the Indicative.</i>)

* NOTE.—With all verbs, the Ancient or Solemn Style frequently uses the forms of the Indicative in conditional clauses, after *if, tho*, etc., instead of the Subjunctive; as, *If thou art; If thou hast; If thou seest*, etc.

TENSES

*Imperative Mode**Present.***love** thou, or *do* thou **love**.

PASSIVE VOICE

The *Passive Voice* simply adds the past participle *loved*, to the various forms of the Ancient or Solemn Style of the verb *be*.
(Compare PASSIVE VOICE, p. 113.)

REMARKS

Since a relative pronoun always takes the person and number of its antecedent, therefore, when that antecedent is in the *second* person singular, the relative referring to it must be in the *second* person singular, and must take a verb in the *second* person singular; as, "Our Father who *art* in heaven."

Such verbs are constantly so given in the Authorized Version of the Scriptures, as well as by the best ancient or modern authors.

Harp of the North! that mouldering long *hast hung*
By the witch-elm that shades St. Fillan's spring.

SCOTT *Lady of the Lake*, can. i, l. 1.

THE ADVERB

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or in some cases a noun or pronoun; as, The birds sing *sweetly*; The error was *instantly* manifest; He spoke *very* hastily; *Not* a drum was heard.

Adverbs Modifying Nouns or Pronouns.—A few adverbs are used as adjuncts, or modifiers of nouns or pronouns; as, *almost, also, altogether, chiefly, entirely, especially, hardly, likewise, merely, never, not, only, particularly, partly, scarcely, simply, solely, too*. Thus, "*Almost* everything was saved." Here the adverb can not modify the verb, for to say "Everything was *almost* saved" would imply that "everything" was really lost.

Not enjoyment and *not* sorrow
Is our destined end or way.

LONGFELLOW *Psalm of Life*.

Who will do this work? *Not* I.

This use of *not* is very frequent, both in approved literature and in common speech.

REMARKS

(1) The adverb is to the verb what the adjective is to the noun, having a descriptive or limiting effect. Thus we may say:

With noun and adjective, "That is a *fast* run"; with verb and adverb, "He runs *fast*." A similar effect is produced by the adverb upon an adjective or another adverb.

(2) An adverb is equivalent to a prepositional phrase containing the corresponding adjective and some such noun as

manner, place, time, or degree; as, finely—in a fine manner; formerly—at a former time; highly—to a high degree.

(3) If such a phrase can not be substituted, we need an adjective, and not an adverb. Thus: He seemed *angry*; but, He spoke *angrily* (*i.e.*, in an *angry* manner). (See ADJECTIVE OR ADVERB, Part II, p. 211.)

I. CLASSES OF ADVERBS

Adverbs are divided according to their meaning into six classes, *viz.*, Adverbs of:

1. Place; as, *here, there, where*;
2. Time; as, *now, then, when*;
3. Manner; as, *how, well, ill, otherwise*;
4. Cause; as, *therefore, wherefore, why*;
5. Number; as, *first*, secondly, thirdly, etc.*;
6. Degree; as, *less, more, too, etc.*

II. SPECIAL GROUPS

Other divisions may be made, among which may be included some of the adverbs already named. Thus:

(1) **Interrogative Adverbs**, used in asking questions. These include such words as *how, when, whence, where, whither, why*. They may be used either in direct questions; as, *Why* did he sell it? or in indirect questions; as, I do not know *why* he sold it.

(2) **Affirmative and Negative Adverbs**.—*Yes* is called an affirmative adverb, and *no* and *not* are called negative adverbs.

(3) **Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs**.—These, besides their use in denoting place, manner, time, or the like, serve also to join a subordinate to a principal clause (See the COMPLEX SENTENCE, Part II, p. 227); as, I saw him *when* he came.

* NOTE.—See First and Firstly, p. 134.

Here "when" is an adverb of time modifying "came"; but it also *relates* to the preceding clause "I saw him," to which it conjoins its own clause.

Among the chief conjunctive or relative adverbs are the following:

As, how, now, since, so, thence, when, whence, whenever, where, wherever, whither, why.

Some of these adverbs have the full effect of conjunctions, and closely resemble them. Some other relative adverbs have the conjunctive effect; as, *after, before, till, until*, etc.

Adverbs in *ly*.—The most common ending of English adverbs is *ly*, a *suffix* originally meaning "like." An adverb may be formed from almost any adjective in the language by adding the suffix *ly**; as, *badly, quickly, promptly*, etc. (For the few exceptions, see SPECIAL USES, SUGGESTIONS, AND CAUTIONS, p. 134; also, FORMS THAT MAY MISLEAD, p. 135.)

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

Adverbs, like adjectives, admit of comparison, except that a smaller number can be compared; and these are more commonly compared by *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely; keenly, less keenly, least keenly*.

Comparisons by *Er* and *Est*.—A few adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est*, chiefly those that have the same form as the corresponding adjectives; as, *early, earlier, earliest; fast, faster, fastest; hard, harder, hardest; long, longer, longest; often, oftener, oftenest; quick, quicker, quickest; soon, sooner, soonest*.

* NOTE.—Adjectives ending in *y* change the *y* to *i* before adding *ly*; as, *ready, readily*, etc. *Due* and *true* omit final *e* before *ly*, forming *duly* and *truly*. Adjectives in *ll* drop the final *l* before adding *ly*; as, *full, fully*.

Irregular Comparison.—Adverbs compared irregularly are the following:

badly	{	worse	worst		late	later	{	latest
ill					little	less		last
far	{	farther	farthest*		much	more	{	least
		further	furtherst*					most
fore	{	former	foremost		near	nearer	{	nearest
			first		well	better		next
								best

SPECIAL USES, SUGGESTIONS, AND CAUTIONS

Adverbs Identical in Form with Adjectives.—The words *deep*, *early*, *hard*, *long*, *loud*, *quick*, and some others are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs; consequently their comparatives and superlatives may also be used in this double relation.—Thus we may say, “a deep well,” or, “drink *deep*,” “an earlier hour,” or, “come *earlier*,” “a louder noise,” or, “read *louder*,” “a longer journey,” or, “stay *longer*.” From the adjective *hard* is formed the adverb *hardly*, which differs in meaning from the adverb *hard*, having the sense of “scarcely.” The sentence “He was *hard* pressed” would be changed in meaning if we were to say, “He was *hardly* pressed.”

Like and Near.—These adverbs (as well as the corresponding adjectives) have often the appearance of prepositions. (See under THE PREPOSITION, LIKE AND NEAR WITH PREPOSITIONAL FORCE, p. 144.)

Like Never a Conjunction.—Such phrases as, He looks *like I do*, are erroneous. (See THE CONJUNCTION, p. 149.)

First and Firstly.—*First* is an adverb as well as an adjective. We may say, the *first* man; or, he spoke *first*. Hence, in enumerations, it is correct to say, *first*, *secondly*, etc. An adverb, *firstly*, has been formed from *first*, and is used by many persons; but *first*—without the *ly*—is in preferred use.

* NOTE.—The forms *fartherest* and *furtherest*, which are sometimes heard, are never to be allowed; say only *farthest*, *furthest*.

Forms that may mislead.—Not all words ending in *ly* are adverbs, some adjectives have this termination; as *cleanly, goodly, homely, lovely, kindly, manly, timely, untimely*. Such adjectives have usually no corresponding adverbs, so that the adverbial meaning can only be expressed by an adverbial phrase; as, “in a *lovely* way.” *Kindly*, however, is also an adverb, so that we may say, “He has a *kindly* face” (adj.), or, “He spoke *kindly*” (adv.). *Good* does not form *goodly* as its adverb, but uses instead the adverb *well*. *Goodly* is an adjective, and not an adverb; as, a *goodly* number.

ERROR.—Care must be taken never to use an adverb in *ly* as an adjective. Do not say “a *softly* touch,” but “a *soft* touch,” or “To touch *softly*.”

Comparatives with *The*.—“*The*” preceding a comparative in such expressions as “*the* more,” “*the* less,” “*the* sooner, *the* better,” is not the definite article but an adverb, derived from what is called “the instrumental case” of the Anglo-Saxon demonstrative pronoun. *The* in this use, signifies “by that,” “by as much,” “by so much,” or the like. The phrase “the sooner *the* better” thus signifies “*by as much as (it is)* sooner, *by so much* (it will be) better.”

Adverbs Following Prepositions.—In various phrases, adverbs seem to be used as objects of prepositions; as, *at once, on high*. (See PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES, p. 144.)

Prepositional Adverbs.—Many prepositional forms are used without an object in connection with various verbs, and are then considered adverbs; as to look *down*, to stand *up*, etc.

Adverbs as Independent Elements.—Various adverbs are used, often elliptically, as independent elements; as, *Away!* (equivalent to “go away”;) *Up! Forward!* Here the adverb has the force of an interjection.

Similar are the uses of *why, well, now*, etc., without any direct connection with other words, as at the beginning of a sentence; as, *Why*, how did you come here? *Well*, that is a surprise; *Now*, who is there?

Yes and No.—These words, used in answer to questions, are independent elements, each being equivalent to a whole

sentence; as, Will you go? *Yes* (equivalent to "I will go"); Is he here? *No* (equivalent to "He is not here").

Position of Adverbs.—The chief rule is that an adverb should be placed as near as possible to the word it is intended to modify.

CAUTION.—The adverb must not be so placed that it may seem to modify a word not intended, or that it may be doubtful which of two words it modifies.

"The French *nearly* lost five thousand men."

This implies that they actually saved the whole five thousand, after "nearly" losing them. What the writer meant was, "The French lost *nearly* five thousand men," *i.e.*, they actually *lost* almost that number of men.

The adverb *only* modifies either the word or phrase immediately following or that immediately preceding. Hence great care should be taken to place the word *only* so that its reference may not be false or doubtful.

"The light, sandy soil *only* favors the fern."

Here "only" would seem to modify "favors," and so understood, the statement would not be true, since "the light, sandy soil" *favors* many other things, as the pine-tree, for instance. The meaning is that no other soil than "The light, sandy soil" is suitable for the fern. Hence the sentence should be, "*Only* the light, sandy soil favors the fern."

Uses of *Only*.—*Only* belongs to three parts of speech, being (1) an *adjective* when it modifies a noun or pronoun; (2) an *adverb*, when it modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb; and (3) a *conjunction*, when it connects phrases or clauses. These uses should be carefully distinguished.

There as an Introductory Adverb.—See PART II, p. 183.

No and Not.—*No* is not used in direct connection with a verb; we do not say "He will *no* come," but "He will *not* come." But *no* is sometimes used as an alternative after *whether*; as, Send me an answer *whether* or *no*.

The Double Negative.—In English two negatives in the same construction cancel each other and equal an affirmative; as "There was *no* member who was *not* present," is equivalent to, "Every member was present." If the two negatives cannot fitly cancel each other the double use is an error, and one negative or the other should be changed; "I won't *never* go" should be, "I *won't* (will *not*) *ever* go, or "I will *never* go."

EXERCISE

Point out all the adverbs in the following extracts, and the words they modify.

The first thing naturally when one enters a scholar's study or library is to look at his books. One gets a notion very speedily of his tastes and the range of his pursuits by a glance round his book-shelves.—O. W. HOLMES *The Poet at the Breakfast Table*, viii.

I love vast libraries; yet there is a doubt,
If one be better with them or without,—
Unless he use them wisely, and, indeed,
Knows the high art of what and how to read.

J. G. SAXE *The Library*.

Music is well said to be the speech of angels.

CARLYLE *Essays. The Opera*.

The wood-robin sings at my door,
And her song is the sweetest I hear
From all the sweet birds that incessantly pour
Their notes through the noon of the year.

JAMES G. CLARKE *The Wood Robin*.

Hark! the hours are softly calling,
Bidding Spring arise,
To listen to the rain-drops falling
From the cloudy skies.

ADELAIDE A. PROCTER *Spring*.

Dip down upon the northern shore,
 O sweet new year, delaying long;
 Thou doest expectant nature wrong.
 Delaying long; delay no more.

TENNYSON *In Memoriam*.

Robert of Lincoln is gayly drest,
 Wearing a bright black wedding-coat;
 White are his shoulders and white his crest.

BRYANT *Robert of Lincoln*.

Robert of Lincoln's Quaker wife,
 Pretty and quiet, with plain brown wings,
 Passing at home a patient life,
 Broods in the grass while her husband sings.

BRYANT *Robert of Lincoln*.

Pity speaks to grief
 More sweetly than a band of instruments.

BARRY CORNWALL *The Florentine Party*.

Look, what thy soul holds dear, imagine it
 To lie that way thou go'st, not whence thou com'st.
Richard II, act i, sc. 3, l. 286.

THE PREPOSITION

DEFINITION AND USE

A **Preposition** is a word that shows the relation between some word called its *object* and some other word which is its *antecedent*; as,

(antecedent)	(preposition)	(object)	
I	went	to	New York.

A *preposition* is a *relation-word*; it belongs to the class of words called "connectives."

The chief relations denoted by prepositions are those of source, destination, direction, situation, position, cause, instrument, agency, etc.

The *antecedent* of a preposition may be a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, or an entire phrase; as, There is the STEAMER *for* Liverpool; SOME *of* the pupils were late; That is GOOD *for* nothing; RUN *to* your base; He came EXACTLY *at* the moment.

The *object* of a preposition is ordinarily a noun or a pronoun; as, Start *for* SCHOOL; give the book *to* HIM.

Instead of a noun or pronoun, the preposition may be followed by: (1) A verb (which is the regular usage of the infinitive); as, *to go*, *to be*, etc.; (2) An adjective; as, from *bad* *to worse*; (3) An adverb; as, *at once*; the hall is lighted from *above*; (4) A phrase; as, There is happiness in *doing right*.

POSITION OF THE PREPOSITION

The word *preposition* is derived from the Latin *pre*, before, and *pono*, place. The *preposition* was originally so called because in Latin it was always *placed before* its object.

In English the preposition ordinarily precedes, but may at times appropriately, and very forcibly, follow its object, even when the preposition thus ends a clause or sentence.

The soil out of which such men ^{as} he are made is good to be born *on*, good to live *on*, good to die *for* and to be buried *in*.—LOWELL *Among My Books, Second Series. Garfield.*

This usage may be supported by numberless quotations from the best authors.

When used with the relative pronoun *that*, the preposition *must* follow its object; as, This is the book *that* I came *for*.

In the English language the object of a preposition is the word that *follows it in thought*.

RULE.—A noun or pronoun which is the object of a preposition is always in the objective case.

With nouns this rule is of great importance for sentence-construction (see THE OBJECTIVE CASE, under NOUN, Part I., p. 22); with pronouns that are declined, the rule directly affects the form of the word; we must say, "from *me*," "to *him*," "of *us*," "to *them*," "with *whom*," etc.

CAUTIONS.—When a pronoun is separated by intervening words from the preposition which governs it, care should be taken that it be in the proper objective form; thus:—

"When all things I heard and saw,
Me their master, waited *for*."

WHITTIER *Barefoot Boy.*

(1) We say correctly, "*Whom* was that made *for*?" or "*For whom* was that made?" Such expressions as "*Who* are you looking *for*" have a certain colloquial use, and some authors would allow them as correct, but they are not in the most approved use.

(2) "It was meant *for you and I*."—Such expressions are very common, and seem to many persons correct, because "*you and I*" is a form in frequent and correct use. Using the nominative, we properly say, "*You and I* will go"; but when we use the pronouns as the objects of a verb or of a preposition, both are in the objective case. This will be seen

at once by leaving out the words, "you and," when it would be impossible to say "It was meant for *I*," we must say "It was meant for *me*," hence also "for *you and me*." Numerous other expressions come under the same rule.

PREPOSITIONS LISTED AND DISCRIMINATED

The principal English prepositions are the following:

A *ab*aft, *a* *ab*oard, *a* *ab*out, *a* *ab*ove, *a* *ac*ross, *a* *af*ter, *a* *ag*ainst, *a* *al*ong, *a* *am*id or *a* *am*idst, *a* *am*ong or *a* *am*ongst, *a* *ar*ound (see also *round*), *a* *asl*ant, *a* *t*, *a* *th*wart, *a* *b*arring, *a* *b*ating, *a* *b*efore, *a* *b*ehind, *a* *b*elow, *a* *b*eneath, *a* *b*eside or *a* *b*esides, *a* *b*etween, *a* *b*etwixt, *a* *b*eyond, *a* *b*ut (compare *except*), *a* *b*y, *a* *c*oncerning, *a* *c*onsidering, *a* *d*own, *a* *d*uring, *a* *e*re, *a* *e*xcept (compare *but*), *a* *e*xcepting, *a* *f*or, *a* *f*rom, *a* *i*n, *a* *i*nside, *a* *i*nto, *a* *m*id, *a* *m*idst, *a* *n*otwithstanding, *a* *o*ff, *a* *o*n (compare *upon*), *a* *o*ut, *a* *o*utside, *a* *o*ver, *a* *o*verthwart, *a* *p*ast, *a* *p*ending, *a* *p*er, *a* *r*egarding, *a* *r*especting, *a* *r*ound (compare *around*), *a* *s*ave, *a* *s*aving, *a* *s*ince, *a* *t*hrough, *a* *t*hroughout, *a* *t*ill (compare *until*), *a* *t*o (compare *unto*), *a* *t*ouching, *a* *t*oward or *a* *t*owards, *a* *u*nder, *a* *u*nderneath, *a* *u*ntil (compare *till*) *a* *u*nto (compare *to*), *a* *u*p, *a* *u*pon (compare *on*), *a* *v*ia, *a* *w*ith, *a* *w*ithin, *a* *w*ithout.

(See *LIKE AND NEAR WITH PREPOSITIONAL FORCE*, p. 144.)

It is important to remember that most prepositions have more than one meaning, while some have very many. False distinctions have been often made by treating one meaning of a preposition as if it were the only meaning.

A few distinctions may here be noted, as follows:

Among—between.—We use *between* in speaking of two persons or things; *among* in speaking of more than two, as, Divide the money *between* the two, or, *among* the three.

By—with.—*By* denotes ordinarily the active agent; *with* denotes the instrument; as, The snow was cleared away *by* workmen *with* shovels; The metal was corroded *by* the acid. *By*, however, is the preferred preposition after *surround*; as, The city is surrounded *by* mountains. We say infested *with*; disturbed *by*.

During may mean throughout a certain period; as in the phrase, "imprisonment *during* life" (tho "imprisonment *for*

life" is often preferred). Or *during* may denote some time or times within the period named; as, "I awoke repeatedly *during* the night"; "The amount will be paid *during* (within) the coming week," that is, at some time between the beginning and end of the week.

From—with.—After *differ* we use ordinarily *from*, but sometimes *with*; one thing or person differs *from* another by having unlike qualities; an apple differs *from* a pear; one person differs *from* another in stature, complexion, etc.; he differs *with* another in opinion. Different is correctly followed by *from*; "Different *to*" has a certain use in England, but is regarded as colloquial and is avoided by careful writers.

In—under.—Shall we say *in*, or *under*, the circumstances? *In* if we mean "surrounded by"; *under*, if we mean "influenced or controlled by." *Under* has the meaning of "subject to"; thus, "*under* my signature" means "subject to and authenticated by, my signature," tho my name may be the last thing on the paper.

Of—off.—*Of* denotes origin, possession, inclusion, material, etc., as, He comes *of* a noble family; the tower *of* London; the palace *of* the King; one *of* the number; made *of* brass. *Off* distinctly denotes removal; as keep *off* the grass.

Error.—In some localities *off* is incorrectly used for *of*. *Of* denotes a source of supply; *off* denotes removal from direct contact; we buy sugar *of* the grocer; pick apples *off* the tree. "I got this coat *of* the tailor" means that he made it for me or sold it to me; "I got this coat *off* the tailor" would mean that I removed it from his person.

With—against.—*With*, oftenest denoting association or union, is used in phrases indicating conflict, opposition, struggle, etc., as the equivalent of *against*; to fight *with*; dispute *with*; have a feud or quarrel *with*, "To fight *with*" is also, tho less frequently, used as meaning "to fight in conjunction *with*—on the side of"; as, Hannibal fought *with* his father in Spain. Where any confusion of meaning might thus arise, some explanatory word or words should be added.

With—from.—In phrases denoting separation, *with* has nearly, but not quite, the meaning of *from*; as, to part *with* a keepsake; to dispense *with* a service.

And thereupon told them that the Lord has done *with* them. [Cromwell's words at expulsion of the Long Parliament.]

MORLEY *Oliver Cromwell* bk. iv, ch. 6, p. 335.

Phrase-Prepositions.—Certain phrases have all the effect of compound prepositions.

Among such phrases are the following: *according to*, *on account of*, *because of*, *with* or *in respect to*, *in spite of*, *by means of*, *with regard to*, *in regard to*, *in consequence of*, *with reference to*, *in reference to*, *as to*, etc.

Participial Prepositions.—Many participles are used with the force of prepositions; as, I spoke with him *concerning* this.

Among such participles are: *barring*, *bating*, *concerning*, *considering*, *during*, *excepting*, *notwithstanding*, *past*, *pending*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *saving*, *touching*, etc.

Concerning may be exactly rendered by *about*, tho not co-extensive with the latter word. *Considering* is commonly used in a depreciatory sense, implying allowance for or deduction of the things considered; as, "He did well *considering* his age," or "*—considering* the difficulties he had to meet."

(1) **Associated Prepositions.**—Prepositions are sometimes combined to denote various phases of some relation; as, "The wave slipped *from under the brig*."

The wave did not slip *from* the brig nor *under* the brig, but *from under*. Such a combination is often called a *complex preposition*.

(2) **Prepositions Used as Adverbs.**—A preposition is often used without an object with the force of an adverb; as, to look *on*; to look *up*; to sink *down*; to stand *by*.

(3) **Inseparable Prepositions.**—A preposition may be so closely connected with a certain verb that the expression has all the force of a compound, and an intransitive verb so attended may be used with its preposition in the passive form.

There are many such combinations; as, to laugh *at*; to look *into*, *on* or *upon*, *over*, *through*, or *up*; to attend *to*. Thus we may have, "The crowd *laughed at* him," or "He *was laughed at* by the crowd"; "The plan was *looked upon* favorably"; "This matter must be *looked up*"; etc.

Like and Near with Prepositional Force.—The adjectives or adverbs *like* and *near* were formerly followed by the preposition *to* or *unto*.

Man is like to vanity.—*Ps.* 144: 4.

Even such our griefs; . . . *like to* groves, being topp'd, they higher rise.—SHAKESPEARE *Pericles*, act i, sc. 4.

The children of Israel, a people *near unto* him.

Ps. 148: 14.

The *to* is now so generally omitted that *like* and *near* have come to have practically the force of prepositions; as, he behaved *like* a child; he stood *near* the door.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

A prepositional phrase is composed of a preposition and its object together with such modifying word or words as the object may have.

A prepositional phrase may be used as:

(1) A *noun*, the subject of a verb, etc.; as, *For us to retreat* is impossible.

(2) An *adjective*, modifying a noun; as, The caves of *Kentucky* are wonderful.

(3) An *adverb*, modifying a verb, an adjective, or another

adverb; as, The river RISES *in the mountains*; The river is CLEAR *in the mountains*; He acted INCONSISTENTLY *with his professions*.

In sentence-analysis it is best to treat the *prepositional phrase as a whole*, as one element of the sentence. Then, the phrase can at pleasure be separated into its component parts, and each treated separately.

A prepositional phrase containing an infinitive may be also called an *infinitive phrase* (p. 180), or if containing a participle, a *participial phrase* (pp. 91, 211).

EXERCISE

Find all the prepositions in the following extracts, and tell the object and the antecedent of each:

Write it on your heart that every day is the best day in the year. No man has learned anything rightly, until he knows that every day is Doomsday.

EMERSON *Society and Solitude. Work and Days.*

Oh, father's gone to market-town, he was up before the day,
And Jamie's after robins, and the man is making hay,
And whistling down the hollow goes the boy that minds the mill,

While mother from the kitchen door is calling with a will,
"Polly!—Polly!—The cows are in the corn! Oh, where's Polly?"

R. W. GILDER *A Midsummer Song.*

It is the season now to go
About the country high and low,
Among the lilacs hand in hand,
And two by two in fairyland.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON *Underwoods.*

It is the Season Now to Go.

Rest is sweet after strife.

OWEN MEREDITH (Lord Lytton) *Lucile.*

Pt. i, canto vi, st. 25.

Turning for them who pass, the common dust
Of servile opportunity to gold.

WORDSWORTH *Desultory Stanzas.*

A life on the ocean wave!
A home on the rolling deep;
Where the scattered waters rave,
And the winds their revels keep!

EPES SARGENT *Life on the Ocean Wave.*

The manly part is to do with might and main what you
can do.—EMERSON *The Conduct of Life, Wealth.*

For the whole world, without a native home,
Is nothing but a prison of larger room.

ABRAHAM COWLEY *To the Bishop of Lincoln*, l. 27.

I do not know the method of drawing up an indictment
against an whole people.

BURKE *Speech on the Conciliation of America.*

THE CONJUNCTION

A **Conjunction** is a part of speech that connects words, clauses or sentences, or shows relation between sentences.

LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS

The principal conjunctions are the following: *also, altho, and, as, because, both, but, either, except, for, however, if, lest, neither, nevertheless, nor, notwithstanding, only, or, provided, save, seeing, since, so, still, than, that, then, therefore, tho, unless, what, when, whereas, whereat, whereby, wherefor, wherefore, wherein, whereof, whereupon, wherever, (where'er), whether, while, without, yet.* (See also list of **CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS**, p. 149.)

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS

There are two principal classes of conjunctions. 1. Coordinate conjunctions; 2. Subordinate conjunctions.

1. **Coordinate Conjunctions.**—A coordinate conjunction is a conjunction that joins two coordinate elements, that is, elements of equal order or rank, as two nouns, two verbs, two clauses, neither of which is dependent on the other (see **THE COMPOUND SENTENCE**, Part II, p. 225), etc.

Coordinate conjunctions may be subdivided into: (1) Copulative; (2) Disjunctive.

A *copulative conjunction* is one that denotes addition; as, *also, and, moreover.*

A *disjunctive conjunction* is one that denotes separa-

tion; as, *but, either, else, however, nevertheless, or, nor, notwithstanding, save, yet.*

Certain *disjunctive* conjunctions that denote opposition as well as separation are often called *adversative* conjunctions, as the last four in the list above given. But since the *adversative* conjunctions are certainly *disjunctive*, there is nothing gained by making them a distinct class.

Various other classes have been named by different authors, but it is undesirable to multiply divisions.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions.—A subordinate conjunction is one that joins a subordinate element to the principal element of the sentence; as, John said *that* he would go. The divisions of subordinate conjunctions are:

(1) Those denoting the relation of time; as, *since, until, as long as, as soon as*, etc.

(2) Those denoting reason or cause; as, *as, because, for, since*, etc.

(3) Those denoting contingency or supposition; as, *if, tho, unless, provided*, etc.

(4) Those denoting purpose or result; as, *lest, that, in order that, so that*.

(5) *Than*, denoting comparison, following adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree (see p. 68 (*d*)); also PART II, pp. 227-228); also following *else, other, otherwise*, and *rather*.

The clauses of compound sentences are joined by coordinate conjunctions (see PART II, p. 226); the subordinate clauses of complex sentences are joined to principal clauses by subordinate conjunctions (see PART II, p. 227).

CAUTION 1.—It must be remembered that *lest* means "that not," and we must avoid supplying an unnecessary *not*, which would reverse the meaning. To say, "A young man must take heed *lest* he be *not* ensnared in temptation," would imply that it is desirable that he should be "ensnared." Omit the *not*.

CAUTION 2.—*Like* should not be used as a conjunction. Do not say, "*like* I am," "*like* he did," etc. Not, "he looks *like* I do," but, "he looks *like* me" (see PREPOSITION, p. 144); not, "do *like* I do," but, "do *as* I do."*

A headline in a leading New York paper reads:

"CITY'S NEW FLAG WILL BE *Like* HUDSON USED."

But the editor who wrote the article had said, "New York will have a new flag which will be *the same as* the banner that first floated over the island, etc."

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions are those used in pairs or series, often in clauses that succeed each other in the same sentence, and neither of which makes complete sense without the other or others.

Correlative conjunctions are: *altho—yet; as—as; as—so; both—and; either—or; if—then; neither—nor; not only—but also; now—now; now—then; so—as; tho—yet; whereas—therefore; whether—or.*

1. *Either* he *or* I must do the work.
2. *Neither* he *nor* I can do the work.
3. Milton was *not only* a poet, *but also* a man of affairs.
4. *Both* William *and* Henry will be present.
5. He does not care *whether* he goes *or* stays.

Or or Nor after Not.—The conjunction *neither* must take as its correlative *nor*; when *not* is used, either *or* or *nor* may follow, but with difference of meaning, *nor* being more strongly adversative; as, Will he *not* come *or* send (one or the other)? but, Will he *not* come *nor* send (and not even send)?

* NOTE.—Murray, in his *New English Dictionary*, says of this usage, "Now generally condemned as vulgar or slovenly, though examples may be found in many recent writers of standing."

EXERCISE

Find all the conjunctions in the following extracts, and tell what words, phrases, or clauses, they connect:

We sleep, but the loom of life never stops; and the pattern which was weaving when the sun went down is weaving when it comes up to-morrow.

HENRY WARD BEECHER *Life Thoughts*, p. 12.

The night is calm and cloudless,
And still as still can be,
And the stars come forth to listen
To the music of the sea.
They gather, and gather, and gather,
Until they crowd the sky,
And listen, in breathless silence,
To the solemn litany.

LONGFELLOW *Christus. The Golden Legend*, pt. v.

For right is right, since God is God,
And right the day must win;
To doubt would be disloyalty,
To falter would be sin.
F. W. FABER *The Right Must Win*, st. 18.

Distinct as the billows, yet one as the sea.

MONTGOMERY *The Ocean*, st. 6.

There is no such thing as a dumb poet or a handless painter. The essence of an artist is that he should be articulate.—SWINBURNE *Essays and Studies. Matthew Arnold's New Poems*.

The true, strong, and sound mind is the mind that can embrace equally great things and small.

SAM'L JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson*. 1778.

As pure as a pearl,
And as perfect: a noble and innocent girl.

OWEN MEREDITH (Lord Lytton) *Lucile*.

Pt. ii, canto vi, st. 16.

Fame is what you have taken,
Character's what you give;
When to this truth you waken,
Then you begin to live.

BAYARD TAYLOR *Improvisations*, st. xi.

Character is higher than intellect. . . . A great soul will be strong to live, as well as to think.—EMERSON *The American Scholar*.

THE INTERJECTION

An Interjection is a word used, independently of all grammatical relation, to express feeling or to awaken attention or interest; as, *ah! hallo! ho!* (See INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, Part II, p. 221.)

O and oh.—The former is the sign of address or wishing, and should always be written as a single capital letter. For example, "O pride of Greece! Ulysses, stay!" The latter, *oh*, expresses sorrow, pain, surprise, hope, or longing, and may begin either with a capital or a small letter, according to its position; as,

Oh, that my head were waters, and mine eyes a fountain of tears.—Jer. 9:1.

(The distinction between *O* and *oh*, is not so closely observed, however, as formerly.)

Various parts of speech when used as exclamations, to express surprise or sudden emotion or intense feeling of any kind, have the force of interjections and are at times so designated; as, *Up! What! Never! Hark!*

EXERCISE

Find all the interjections in the following extracts:

O pilot! 'tis a fearful night,
There's danger on the deep.

THOMAS HAYNES BAYLY *The Pilot*.

Oh, would I were a boy again,
When life seemed formed of sunny years,
And all the heart then knew of pain
Was wept away in transient tears!

MARK LEMON *Oh, Would I Were a Boy Again*.

What! sigh for the toothache?
Much Ado About Nothing, act iii, sc. 2, l. 21.

Hark! the numbers soft and clear,
Gently steal upon the ear;
Now louder, and yet louder rise
And fill with spreading sounds the skies.
POPE *Ode on St. Cecilia's Day*.

Ah! what would the world be to us
If the children were no more?
We should dread the desert behind us
Worse than the dark before.
LONGFELLOW *Children*, st. 4.

Music do I hear?
Ha! ha! keep time: how sour sweet music is,
When time is broken and no proportion kept!
Richard II, act v, sc. 5, l. 41.

Oh, keep me innocent, make others great!
Written on a window by CAROLINE MATILDA,
Queen of Denmark.

When I see the chestnut letting
All her lovely blossoms falter down, I think,
"Alas the day!"
JEAN INGELow *The Warbling of Blackbirds*.

Ay me! what perils do environ
The man that meddles with cold iron!
BUTLER *Hudibras*, pt. i, can. iii, l. 1.

O what a glory doth this world put on
For him who, with a fervent heart, goes forth
Under the bright and glorious sky, and looks
On duties well performed, and days well spent!
For him the wind, ay, and the yellow leaves,
Shall have a voice, and give him eloquent teachings.
LONGFELLOW *Autumn*, l. 30.

PART II
THE SENTENCE

THE SENTENCE

A **Sentence** is a combination of words so connected as to express a complete thought.

It is by "expressing a complete thought" that the *sentence* differs from the *phrase*. The *phrase* merely indicates a thought, which it does not completely "express." (See PHRASES, p. 162.) Thus, "Man is mortal" is a *sentence*. The thought is "complete." All is said. The mind rests. "Man being mortal" is a *phrase*. The thought is not "complete." The mind does not rest, but is left in suspense. We ask, "Well, what then?" and wait for some conclusion.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

The sentence is composed of two parts, *viz.*: 1. The Subject; 2. The Predicate.

The **Subject** is that of which something is said (or affirmed) by the use of a finite verb.

The **Predicate** is that which is said (or affirmed) of the subject by the use of a finite verb.

REMARKS

See PART I, p. 84. The words "by the use of a finite verb" are important. It is the *finite verb* that really constitutes the sentence, binding it together as the keystone binds the arch. This can not be done by the infinitive or the participle. "The man *being* good" (present participle) is not a sentence; so "The man *to be* good" (infinitive) is not a sentence; but "The man *is* good" (finite verb) is a sentence. There can be no *predicate* without a "finite verb."

(For full explanation of these terms, see The SIMPLE SENTENCE, pp. 163-167.)

CLASSES OF SENTENCES

Sentences are divided along two different lines.

1. As to the Manner of Expressing Thought, sentences are divided into four classes, *viz.*:

(1) **Declarative.**—A Declarative Sentence affirms that something is or is not a fact or a possibility as, The sun shines; The earth moves; The sun has not set.

(2) **Interrogative.**—An Interrogative Sentence asks whether something is or is not a fact; as, Is this your home? Is not that reasonable?

(3) **Imperative.**—An Imperative Sentence commands or forbids something; as, Listen to me; Do not neglect your lessons.

(4) **Exclamatory.**—An Exclamatory Sentence expresses a thought as an exclamation, either with or without an interjection; as, "Oh, give me my lowly thatched cottage again!" "How brightly the sun shines!"

REMARKS

It will be seen that the first of these *exclamatory* sentences is also *imperative*, "give me, etc."; and that the second is *declarative* as well as *exclamatory*, "the sun shines." But the imperative or the declaration is uttered as an exclamation, so that such sentences are preferably called *exclamatory*.

The exclamation point does not make the exclamatory sentence, but merely indicates its essential character. It is a blemish of style to use an exclamation point with an imperative or other sentence which is *not* exclamatory.

Negative Sentences.—These do not form a separate class. By the use of a negative noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb or conjunction, a sentence of any of the four classes above named becomes also a *negative sentence* (*negative-declarative*, etc.).

2. As to the Structure of the Sentence, sentences are divided into three classes, *viz.*:

(1) **The Simple Sentence.**—A Simple Sentence contains but one subject and one predicate; as, Life is short; Flowers bloom in the spring; A good man is at peace with himself and the world.

REMARKS

A simple sentence may be long or short. A very long sentence may be simple, if it contains but one subject and one predicate.

Two or more nouns or pronouns may be joined to form *one compound subject*, and two or more verbs to form *one compound predicate*, and the sentence so formed will still be a simple sentence, if there is but *one compound subject* and *one compound predicate*; as, John and James study together; John and James *study and recite and play* together. Each of these sentences is a simple sentence. (See pp. 165-167.)

(2) **Compound and Complex Sentences.**—Two or more simple sentences may be combined into one longer sentence, called according to its structure, *compound* or *complex*. (See THE COMPOUND SENTENCE, p. 225; THE COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 226.)

EXERCISE

Tell which of the following sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory; tell which are also negative:

Endurance is the crowning quality,
And patience all the passion of great hearts.

LOWELL *Columbus*, 1. 237.

Swiftly walk over the western wave,
Spirit of Night!

SHELLEY *To Night*.

The stately homes of England,
 How beautiful they stand!
 Amidst their tall ancestral trees,
 O'er all the pleasant land.

MRS. HEMANS *Homes of England*.

Read my little fable:
 He that runs may read.
 Most can raise the flowers now,
 For all have got the seed.

TENNYSON *The Flowers*.

There is no knowledge that is not power.
 EMERSON *Society and Solitude*. *Old Age*.

Who, for the poor renown of being smart,
 Would leave a sting within a brother's heart?
 YOUNG *Love of Fame*, satire ii, l. 113.

O'er the glad waters of the dark blue sea,
 Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as free,
 Far as the breeze can bear, the billows foam
 Survey our empire, and behold our home!

BYRON *The Corsair*, can. i, st. 1.

Take thou thy arms and come with me,
 For we must quit ourselves like men, and strive
 To aid our cause, altho we be but two.

HOMER *Iliad*, bk. xiii, l. 289.

Various Terms Used in Sentence Treatment

Adjuncts.—An *adjunct* is something joined to or connected with another thing, but holding a subordinate place; as, a set of doorsteps is an *adjunct* to a house. An *adjunct* may be a direct modifier, as an adjective or adverb, or an infinitive or prepositional phrase, etc., quite loosely connected with that to which it is joined.

Analysis.—The separation of a sentence into parts, and

the bringing out of their definite relations to each other and to the whole sentence, is called *analysis*. (Compare SYNTHESIS, p. 162.)

To subdivide a sentence into clauses, phrases, or elements is to *analyze* the sentence.

Clauses.—A *clause* is a simple sentence combined with some other simple sentence or sentences so as to form a compound or a complex sentence. Clauses, according to their relations with one another, are called *independent* or *principal*, or *dependent* or *subordinate*. (Compare PHRASES, p. 162.)

A *clause* is always a simple sentence containing a subject and a predicate.*

Connectives.—Words that connect words, phrases, or clauses are called *connectives*.

The chief connectives are:

1. Conjunctions, connecting words, phrases, or clauses; as, *as, and, but, if, or*, etc. 2. Prepositions connecting words; as, *at, by, in, to*, etc. 3. Relative pronouns, connecting clauses or phrases, *viz.*: *who, which, what*, and *that*. 4. Conjunctive or relative adverbs, connecting clauses or phrases; as, *hence, when, whence, where, why*, etc.

Construction.—To *construct* is to build or shape out of materials given. *Construction* in grammar may be either the process of building a phrase, clause, or sentence, or it may be that which is so built; a group of combined words may be a correct or an incorrect *construction*.

Elements.—Any part of a sentence which is capable of being considered by itself as helping to make up the

* NOTE.—Hence independent or dependent, principal or subordinate *clauses* are often spoken of as independent or dependent, principal or subordinate *sentences*.

sentence is called an *element* of the sentence. An element may be a single word or a group of words.

An element used as a noun is called a *noun-element*, used as an adjective, an *adjective-element*, as an adverb, an *adverb-element*, etc.; but these names are of no special importance. (See also INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, p. 218.)

Members.—The clauses which are united to form a compound or complex sentence are called the *members* of such sentence.

They are sometimes, tho less strictly, called *elements* of the compound or complex sentence. (See p. 231.)

Modifiers.—A *Modifier* is something added to a word or phrase so as to affect or change its meaning; as, an adjective is a *modifier* of a noun; an adverb is a *modifier* of a verb, etc. We say the adjective *modifies* the noun, the adverb *modifies* the verb, etc.

Phrases.—A group of two or more associated words *not containing a subject and predicate* is called a *Phrase*. (Compare CLAUSES, p. 161.)

In the sentence, "The sun has risen and the birds are singing," the *clause* "The sun has risen" may be changed into a *phrase* by putting a participle in place of the finite verb, and making it read, "The sun *having risen*," because we no longer have a predicate; "The sun *having risen*" is not a sentence, and therefore not a *clause*, but a *phrase*.

A *phrase* often consists of but two or three associated words; as, "in truth," "according to," "as well as," and numerous other combinations.

A *phrase* is never a *sentence*, and never a *clause*.

Synthesis.—Synthesis is the opposite of analysis, *viz.*: the putting together of words, phrases, or clauses, so as to form a grammatical unity. (See ANALYSIS, p. 160.)

Analysis enables us to explain a sentence already formed; *synthesis* enables us to form a sentence out of elements given or thought of.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

The **Simple Sentence**—that is, the sentence containing but one subject and one predicate—is the basis of all sentence construction.

One who has completely mastered the *Simple Sentence* can understand any sentence that can be made, for the most involved compound or complex sentences are only combinations of simple sentences.

A simple sentence may consist of but two words, a noun (or pronoun) and a verb; as, John runs; Time flies; He lives; I go. In any one of these sentences a noun or pronoun is the subject and a verb is the predicate.

We may greatly extend such a sentence by adding other words to both subject and predicate, and *still have a simple sentence*, as long as we do not bring in a new subject or a new predicate. Thus: *John*, the youngest boy in the class, || *runs* faster than any of the others. Here "John" is still the essential subject, the associated words merely describing him; and "runs" is still the essential predicate—the act affirmed of the subject—the added words merely describing *how* he "runs."

The Essential Subject

The noun (or noun-element) which is *essential* as the subject of the verb is called the *Essential Subject*.

The Complete Subject

The entire group of words associated with and including the *essential subject* is called the *Complete Subject*.

Thus, in the sentence above given, "John" is the *essential subject*, and "John, the youngest boy in the class" is the *complete subject*.

The Essential Predicate

The verb which is *essential* for stating something about the subject, so that the sentence could not be constructed without it, is called the *Essential Predicate*.

The Complete Predicate

The entire group of words associated with and including the *essential predicate*, is called the *Complete Predicate*.

Thus, in the sentence above given, "runs" is the *essential predicate*, and "runs faster than any of the others" is the *complete predicate*.

The *essential subject* may be also the *complete subject* and the *essential predicate* may be also the *complete predicate*, as in the sentence. "John runs," where a single noun forms the subject and a single verb the predicate.

The *complete subject* always includes the *essential subject*, and the *complete predicate* always includes the *essential predicate*, as in the examples given above.

EXERCISE

Point out the essential subject and the essential predicate in each of the following sentences, also the complete subject and the complete predicate.

So may a glory from defect arise.

ROBERT BROWNING *Deaf and Dumb*.

Earth, with her thousand voices, praises God.—COLERIDGE
Hymn Before Sunrise in the Vale of Chamouni.

The child is father of the man.

WORDSWORTH *My Heart Leaps Up*.

He shall have merely justice and his bond.

SHAKESPEARE *Merchant of Venice*, act iv, sc. i, l. 339.

The wisdom of the wise and the experience of ages may be preserved by quotation.—ISAAC DISRAELI *Curiosities of Literature. Quotation.*

That fellow would vulgarize the day of judgment.
DOUGLAS JERROLD *A Comic Author.*

Men are more satirical from vanity than from malice.
LA ROCHEFOUCAULD *Maxims.* No. 508.

Violets spring in the soft May shower.
BRYANT *The Maiden's Sorrow.*

Justice, sir, is the great interest of man on earth.
DANIEL WEBSTER *On Mr. Justice Story*, 1845.

I know the lands are lit
With all the autumn blaze of goldenrod.
HELEN HUNT JACKSON *Asters and Goldenrod.*

A sound Mind in a sound Body, is a short but full description of a happy State in this World.—LOCKE *Thoughts Concerning Education.*

Gay hope is theirs by fancy fed,
Less pleasing when possess.
GRAY *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College*, st. 5.

Heaven open'd wide
Her ever-during gates, harmonious sound
On golden hinges moving.
MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. vii, l. 205.

THE SIMPLE OR COMPOUND SUBJECT

The essential subject may be either simple or compound.

(1) A Simple Essential Subject consists of a single noun or noun-element.

(2) A **Compound Essential Subject** consists of two or more nouns (or noun-elements) or pronouns united by a conjunction; as, *John and James sit together.*

Here we do not have two sentences, for we could not say, "*John sit together and James sit together.*" "*John and James*" must be treated as the Compound Essential Subject of the sentence.

A great number of nouns or pronouns may be so connected, forming one Compound Essential Subject. Thus:

*The Goth, the Christian, time, war, flood and fire,
Have dealt upon the Seven Hilled City's pride.
BYRON Childe Harold, can. iv.*

Where several nouns (or pronouns) are thus connected to form a compound subject, the conjunction is often omitted before each of the added nouns except the last, its place being supplied by a comma, as in the extract given above.

THE SIMPLE OR COMPOUND PREDICATE

The essential predicate may be either simple or compound.

(1) A **Simple Essential Predicate** consists of a single verb in agreement with the essential subject; as, *The boy reads.* The single verb so employed may be called the *essential predicate* or the *predicate verb*.

(2) A **Compound Essential Predicate** consists of two or more verbs united by a conjunction or conjunctions and each in agreement with the same essential subject; as, *The boy runs and slides;* "*I came, saw, and conquered.*" Verbs so united in the predicate form a *Compound Essential Predicate*.

The conjunction is often omitted between all the verbs except the last two, as in the last sentence given above.

A sentence containing a compound subject or a compound

predicate, or both, may still be a *simple sentence*. The sentence does not become a *compound sentence* except *when two or more simple sentences, each entirely distinct, are united*. (See COMPOUND SENTENCE, p. 225.)

EXERCISE

Select and explain the compound subject or compound predicate in each of the following sentences.

The genius, wit, and spirit of a nation are discovered in its proverbs.—BACON.

[Here three things “are discovered”—“genius, wit, and spirit”—which together form the *compound subject* of the one predicate verb.]

My brother wears a martial plume,
And serves within a distant land.

[Here two acts are stated in the predicate—“wears” and “serves”—each ascribed to the one subject, “brother.” Therefore these two verbs form the *compound essential predicate* of the sentence. All the words after “brother” form the *complete predicate*.]

The blossoms and leaves in plenty
From the apple-tree fall each day.

HEINE *Book of Songs. Lyrical Interlude. No. 63.*

The rich and the poor meet together: the Lord is the maker of them all.—*Prov. 22:2.*

Close by a rock, of less enormous height,
Breaks the wild waves, and forms a dangerous strait.
HOMER *Odyssey*, bk. xii, l. 125. Pope's trans.

As hope and fear alternate chase
Our course through life's uncertain race.
SCOTT *Rokeby*, can. vi, st. 2.

The helmèd Cherubim,
 And sworded Seraphim,
 Are seen in glittering ranks with wings display'd.
 MILTON *Hymn on the Nativity*, l. 112.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE OF MANY WORDS, OR FEW

A simple sentence consists of *one essential subject* and *one essential predicate*, with any modifiers or adjuncts of either.

A simple sentence must contain:

1. An essential subject (simple or compound);
2. An essential predicate (simple or compound).

The correct framing of the sentence depends absolutely on recognizing the essential subject and the essential predicate, and uniting them in proper agreement.

The number of adjuncts or modifiers in the *complete subject* or the *complete predicate* does not change the character of the sentence; it is a *simple sentence*, so long as it contains but *one essential subject* and *one essential predicate*.

Thus:

"The good, wise, noble *man*, honored and beloved by all, *lives* simply and quietly in a small, plain house, in that great city."

Here "man" is the essential subject and "lives" is the essential predicate. All the parts of that long sentence are built around those two little words "man" and "lives," which are essential to the sentence, one as the essential subject, and the other as the essential predicate.

Thus if we were to change the essential subject of the sentence given above from "man" to "men," we should at once have to change the essential predicate from "lives" to "live" (since the verb must agree with its subject in person and

number), while not another word in the sentence would need to be changed. The sentence would then read:

"The good, wise, noble *men* honored and beloved by all, *live* simply and quietly in a small, plain house in that great city."

But any number of words we might add would still leave the sentence a *simple sentence*, so long as we do not introduce a new subject and a new predicate. (Compare COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES, p. 224.)

A. THE SUBJECT

The Essential Subject may be:

(1) A **Noun**; as, *Rain* is falling.

(2) A **Pronoun**; as, *He* is here.

(3) An **Adjective** used as a noun; as, *The good* are the happy.

(4) An **Infinitive** used as a noun; as, *To work* is the way to win.

(5) A **Participle** used as a noun; as, *Working* strengthens the worker.

(6) A **Phrase*** used as a noun; as, *To be first in his class* was his ambition.

(7) Any part of speech treated simply as a name, and so used as a noun; as, *If* often brings failure.

PARTS OF SPEECH IN THE COMPLETE SUBJECT

Any part of speech, except a finite verb, may be joined to the essential subject as an adjunct or modifier, to make up the complete subject.

* NOTE.—A *clause* may also be used as a noun forming the subject of a sentence, but such a construction is not a *simple*, but a *complex* sentence; as, "*That he might win the game* was his only thought."

I. THE NOUN

A noun may be used in the complete subject in either one of the three cases.

A. *The Nominative Case*

(1) **The Essential Subject.**—The chief use of a noun in the subject of a sentence is as itself constituting the essential subject; as, The *time* has come.

A noun which is the essential subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

Where two or more nouns form a compound essential subject each of those nouns is in the nominative case.

(2) **An Appositive of the Essential Subject.**—Since the essential subject is always in the nominative case, any noun in apposition with the essential subject is also in the nominative case, as, Washington, the *general*, was present. (See APPPOSITION under NOUN, Part I, p. 22.)

To this head are to be referred all prefixes, as personal names, and titles of office or honor; as, *George* Washington; *General* Washington; *Lord* Bacon; *John Paul* Jones.

A noun in apposition with the subject is *not an added subject*, but a modifier, modifying the subject, very much as an adjective might do. A simple subject does not become compound when an appositive is added, but remains the single subject of the verb.

A number of appositives may be added to a single subject; as, *George Washington*, the *citizen*, *soldier*, *statesman*, and *patriot*, was present.

B. *The Possessive Case*

(3) **A Possessive Modifying the Essential Subject;** as, The *child's* hands were cold. Here the noun "hands" is the essential subject, and being in the plural number, takes a plural verb, "were." The noun "child's" is in

the possessive case, modifying the essential subject "hands." "The child's hands," is the complete subject.

Caution.—A possessive modifier has no effect upon the number of the predicate verb, which is determined wholly by the essential subject. Thus:

The *child's* HOME *was* pleasant;

The *children's* HOME *was* pleasant.

(4) **A Possessive Modifying an Adjunct** of the essential subject; as, The shoes covering the *child's* feet were old and worn.

C. The Objective Case

(5) **The Object of a Participle**; as, The teacher, seeing the *difficulty*, changed the question. (See THE PARTICIPLE IN THE SUBJECT, p. 181.) The noun "difficulty" is the object of the participle "seeing," which modifies "teacher," the essential subject.

(6) **The Subject or Object of an Infinitive**; as, For *fishes* to swim is easy; The time to gain *education* is in youth. (See THE INFINITIVE IN THE SUBJECT, p. 180.)

(7) **The Object of a Preposition**.—This occurs in a prepositional phrase modifying the essential subject; as, The lady at the *desk* is the teacher. (See PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE, p. 185; also, p. 22, CAUTION.)

Thus a noun in either of the three cases may be part of the complete subject:

A.—The *nominative case* (1), (2);

B.—The *possessive case* (3), (4);

C.—The *objective case* (5), (6), (7).

How to Determine the Essential Subject.—When various nouns make up the complete subject, we may at once set aside numbers (3), (4), (5), (6), and (7), since

neither the possessive nor the objective case can be the essential subject of a predicate verb or of a sentence.

We then have left only numbers (1) and (2), and between these there will rarely be any confusion. The essential subject is usually distinguished at once from the appositive by its prominence as the chief thing spoken of. Usually too, the essential subject comes before the appositive, which is added to explain or emphasize it.*

Take, for instance, the following sentence:

New York, the center of America's commerce, and in touch with the trade of all the world,||is situated at the mouth of the Hudson.

The *complete subject*, including all down to the verb "is situated," contains seven nouns. Which of them is the essential subject?

It can not be "world," for that is the object of the preposition "of"; it can not be "trade," for that is the object of the preposition "with"; nor "touch," for that is the object of "in"; nor "commerce," for that is the object of the preposition "of." It can not be "America's," for that is a noun in the possessive case, which can never be the subject of a verb or of a sentence. The noun "center" can not be the subject, because it is an appositive. Thus, we have left only "New York," which is the *essential subject* of the sentence.

EXERCISE

Select all nouns forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and explain the use of each.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

* NOTE.—Sometimes, in what is called inverted construction, the appositive precedes the essential subject; as,

"Child of the sun, refulgent summer, comes."

But here, probably, no one would take "child of the sun" to be the essential subject; it is at once seen that the essential subject is "summer," and that "child of the sun" is an appositive phrase describing "summer."

Affliction's sons are brothers in distress;
A brother to relieve, how exquisite the bliss!
BURNS *A Winter Night*.

Most people would succeed in small things if they were not troubled with great ambitions.—LONGFELLOW *Driftwood Table-Talk*.

The true greatness of nations is in those qualities which constitute the greatness of the individual.—CHARLES SUMNER *Oration on the True Grandeur of Nations*.

Never anger made good guard for itself.
SHAKESPEARE *Antony and Cleopatra*, act iv, sc. 1.

At length the morn and cold indifference came.
NICHOLAS ROWE *The Fair Penitent*.

Auspicious Hope! in thy sweet garden grow
Wreaths for each toil, a charm for every woe.
CAMPBELL *Pleasures of Hope*, pt. i, l. 45.

Each substance of a grief hath twenty shadows.
SHAKESPEARE *Richard II*, act ii, sc. 2, l. 14.

A wild boar, a devourer of Tuscan acorns, and heavy with the fruit of many an oak, second in fame only to the monster of Ætolia, lies an envied prey for my kitchen fire.—MARTIAL *Epigrams*, bk. vii, ep. 27.

A chaste and lucid style is indicative of the same personal traits in the author.—HOSEA BALLOU *MS. Sermons*.

Born for success, he seemed
With grace to win, with heart to hold,
With shining gifts that took all eyes.
EMERSON *In Memoriam E. B. E.*, l. 60,

And Hope enchanted smiled, and waved her golden hair.

COLLINS *Ode on the Passions*, l. 3.

II. THE PRONOUN

The use of the Pronoun in the subject of a simple sentence is for the most part the same as that of the noun.

A. *The Nominative Case*

(1) **The Essential Subject.**—A pronoun may be the essential subject; as, *He* is attentive; *They* are absent. Two or more pronouns may be united in a compound essential subject; as, *You* and *I* will go. *This*, *that* or the *other* will interrupt.

A pronoun may be joined with a noun to form a compound essential subject; as, George and *I* will go. *He* and his lawyer contrived the plan. An indefinite number of nouns or pronouns, or of both, may be so combined in a compound essential subject.

When the pronoun *I* is one of these, the *I* comes last in the series; as, He and *I* met at the train; John, James, and *I* were present.

RULE.—A pronoun used as the essential subject must be in the nominative case. This case is indicated by the form of the pronoun in the personal pronouns, *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *we*, *you*, *they*, and in the interrogative or relative *who*.

Errors.—Hence, to say “you and *him* may go” is a complete error, while, “*Me* and you will go” violates two rules of grammar at once; the “*Me*” is wrong both by case and position; the expression should be “you and *I*.” (For a common misuse of the objective *whom*, see THE COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 225.)

***It* as an Introductory Subject.**—The pronoun *it* is often used merely as an introductory word; as, *It* rains; *It* is cold. Here “*it*” does not represent any definite person or thing,

either expressed or understood, but is an introductory subject, used to give sentence-form to the idea expressed by the verb. "It" is the essential subject of the verb. "It" fills out the grammatical frame, giving the thought that "rain is falling" the briefest possible sentence-form, "It rains." A verb so used is often called impersonal.

It, as an introductory subject, may refer to a following phrase or clause; as, *It is evident that a mistake was made; It is necessary to study the lesson.**

By inverting these sentences, we may dispense with "it," and yet express the same thought; *That a mistake was made* is evident; *To study the lesson* is necessary. But this involves loss of emphasis. The introductory subject "it" is an ingenious device to carry over the really important subject of thought to the emphatic place at the end of the sentence; thus "that a mistake has been made," or "to study the lesson," becomes the final and impressive thought.

The Plural Following Introductory *It*.—*It* as an introductory subject may represent a noun or pronoun of any gender or person, or of either number. Thus:

It was *Milton* who wrote *Paradise Lost*; *It* was government bonds that I purchased; *It* has been years since I met him; *It* is these that I want; *It* was *they* who told me. Such forms, which have sometimes been censured, are well established in English usage.

(2) **The Pronoun Not an Appositive.**—The pronoun is rarely if ever used as the appositive of a noun or of another pronoun, but may take a noun in apposition with itself; as, *We*, the people of the United States * * * do ordain and establish this Constitution.

Here it will be seen that the noun is explanatory of the pronoun, which might stand alone as the essential subject;

* NOTE.—For the adverb *there* used as an introductory word, see ADVERB, p. 183.

"the people" explains who are the "we" (who "ordain and establish this Constitution"). For the *Nominative Absolute*, see INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS (4), p. 218.

B. The Possessive Case

(3) **A Possessive Modifying the Essential Subject;** as, *My* book is on the table; *His* note is now due. This case is exactly like that of a noun in the possessive case modifying the essential subject.

(4) **A Possessive Used as the Essential Subject;** as, *Yours* of the 18th is just received. Here we can not supply a noun without changing the form of the possessive; we should have to write "*your* letter," etc.; if we use "*yours*" we must use it without a noun, and as itself the essential subject—this form of the pronoun being a secondary possessive, *used as a noun*. (See CASE IN PERSONAL PRONOUNS (3), Part I, p. 36.)

(5) **A Possessive as Modifier of any Adjunct.**—A Possessive may be used as a modifier in any phrase modifying the essential subject, as, The way to learn *your* lessons is to study; Trusting *his* honesty I went with him.

C. The Objective Case

A pronoun in the objective case may be used as (6) the object of a participle; (7) the subject or object of an infinitive; (8) the object of a preposition that forms part of the complete subject; as, Trusting *me* to lead, they advanced; The attempt to relieve *him* failed. Doubt about *this* gave place to certainty.

Thus a pronoun in any one of the three cases may be part of the complete subject of a simple sentence, either as being itself the essential subject, or as forming an adjunct or part of a phrase-adjunct of that subject.

EXERCISE

Select all pronouns forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and explain how each is related to the essential subject and to the predicate verb.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

She in beauty, education, blood,
Holds hand with any princess of the world.
SHAKESPEARE *King John*, act ii, sc. 1, l. 493.

And what they dare to dream of, dare to do.
LOWELL *Ode Recited at the Harvard Commemoration*,
July 21, 1865, st. 3.

This sacred shade and solitude, what is it?
'Tis the felt presence of the Deity.
YOUNG *Night Thoughts*, *Night* v, l. 172.

It is a poor sport that is not worth the candle.—HERBERT
Jacula Prudentum.

Through the sunset of hope,
Like the shapes of a dream,
What paradise islands of glory gleam!
SHELLEY *Hellas*.

But now 'tis little joy
To know I'm further off from heaven
Than when I was a boy.
HOOD *I Remember, I Remember*.

I am a part of all that I have met.
TENNYSON *Ulysses*, l. 18.

On the light of Liberty you saw arise the light of Peace.—
DANIEL WEBSTER *The Bunker Hill Monument*, 1825.

III. THE ADJECTIVE

The English Adjective has neither gender, person, number, nor case. (See THE ADJECTIVE, Part. I, p. 62.) We have only to know the common form of the adjective and then apply that to any noun or pronoun. Wherever a noun is used in the complete subject of a sentence an adjective may be used as a modifier of that noun.

The Adjective as used in the subject of a sentence may be:

(1) **The Essential Subject.**—This occurs when the adjective preceded by the definite article is used as a noun; as, *The best* is the cheapest; *The good* are blessed.

Some words originally adjectives have come to be definitely used as nouns, as *right* and *good*, which have regular plurals; as, the *rights* of man; *goods* and chattels. Except in such cases an adjective with the definite article, *the*, is to be classed as "an adjective used as a noun."

(2) **A Modifier of the Essential Subject.**—This is the most common use of the adjective; as, *A busy* day awaited me; *A harder* task remained; *The best* news came at last.

(3) **A Modifier of an Adjunct.**—An adjective may modify an appositive of the essential subject or any noun used in a participial, prepositional, or other phrase that forms part of the complete subject; as, *Grant, the great* soldier, was a lover of peace; *To make an early* start was our plan; *The orator, telling a funny* story, put his audience in good humor.

EXERCISE

Select all adjectives forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and explain the use of every such adjective.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

The royal kingcup bold
Dares not don his coat of gold.
EDWIN ARNOLD *Almond Blossoms*.

The hallowed lilies of the field
In glory are arrayed.
E. C. KINNEY *The Spirit of Song*, st. 4.

The little purple pansy brings
Thoughts of the sweetest, saddest things.
MARY E. BRADLEY *Heart's Ease*.

The most delightful pleasures cloy without variety.
PUBLIUS SYRUS.

The awful shadow of some unseen Power
Floats, tho unseen, amongst us.
SHELLEY *Hymn to Intellectual Beauty*.

A man deep-wounded may feel too much pain
To feel much anger.
GEORGE ELIOT *Spanish Gypsy*, bk. i.

Senseless, and deformed,
Convulsive anger storms at large.
THOMSON *The Seasons. Spring*.

In his days shall the righteous flourish.—*Ps. 72:7*.

The tall oak, towering to the skies,
The fury of the wind defies.
MONTGOMERY *The Oak*.

IV. THE VERB

A finite verb can not, in ordinary use,* be part of the subject of a simple sentence; if we say, for instance, "*The man who is at the gate may enter,*" We have not a *simple* but a complex sentence. (See COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 226.)

There are, however, two verbal forms, the *infinitive* and the *participle*, either of which may be used in the subject of a simple sentence.

A. *The Infinitive in the Subject* †

An infinitive or an infinitive phrase (see p. 83) may be:

(1) The essential subject; as, *To lie* is base; *To learn* all the facts of the case is a necessity.

The infinitive denoting purpose is often the object of the preposition *for*, having a subject in the objective case; as, *for them to go*.

Such infinitive phrase with *for* may be:

(a) The essential subject; as, *For him to escape* is impossible. Here the infinitive phrase "*For him to escape*" is a *noun-element*, the subject of the verb "*is*."

(b) An adjunct of the essential subject; as, *The plan for him to escape* was craftily formed.

Here the infinitive phrase "*for him to escape*" is an *adjective-element*, modifying the noun "*plan*."

(2) A modifier of the essential subject; as, *The time to learn* is while we are young.

In such use the infinitive or infinitive phrase is to be classed as an adjective-element.

(3) A modifier of any adjunct of the essential subject; as, *The children, eager to go*, crowded to the door.

* NOTE.—The only exception is when a verb is used as a mere *word* (p. 169); as, That "*is*" is incorrect.

† NOTE.—For the use of the infinitive as an independent element, see under INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, p. 220.

B. The Participle in the Subject

A participle or participial phrase may form part of the complete subject of a sentence, as:

(1) The **Essential Subject**; as, *Giving* (participle) is the way to enjoyment; *Being generous* (participial phrase) wins friends.

(2) As a **Modifier of the Essential Subject**; as, The children, *seeing the door open*, ran out.*

(3) As a **Modifier of Some Adjunct** of the essential subject; as, *Angry at being detained*, he became silent.

Here the participial phrase "at being detained" is an adverb-element modifying the adjective "angry"; "he, angry at being detained," is the complete subject, of which the participial phrase, "at being detained," thus forms part.

The Participle with the Possessive.—A participle used as a noun may be preceded by the possessive case of a noun or pronoun; as, The *man's* leaving home was a surprise; *His* buying the property was a mistake; *My* going there was necessary. This is the regular construction, and any other would ordinarily be inaccurate. The same rule holds in the predicate. Do not say, "What do you think of *him* selling the property?" but "of *his* selling the property."

EXERCISE

Select every infinitive or infinitive phrase and every participle or participial phrase, forming part of the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and show how each is related to the *essential subject* and to other elements of the sentence.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

To blow and swallow at the same moment isn't easy to be done.—PLAUTUS *Mostellaria*, act iii, sc. 2. Riley's trans.

* NOTE.—For the absolute construction of the participle with a noun (as, The hour *being* late, we started at once), see the NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE, under INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, p. 219.

To live by one man's will became the cause of all men's misery.—RICHARD HOOKER *Ecclesiastical Polity*, bk. i, ch. x, 5.

Reputation being essentially contemporaneous, is always at the mercy of the envious and the ignorant.—MRS. JAMESON *Memoirs and Essays. Washington Allston*.

A house divided against itself can not stand. I believe this government can not endure permanently half-slave and half-free.—ABRAHAM LINCOLN *Speech*, June 17, 1858.

To be conscious that you are ignorant is a great step to knowledge.—BENJ. DISRAELI *Sybil*, bk. i, ch. v.

To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace.—GEORGE WASHINGTON *Speech to Both Houses of Congress*, Jan. 8, 1790.

O how grandly cometh Even,
Sitting on the mountain summit,
Purple-vestured, grave and silent,
Watching o'er the dewy valleys,
Like a good king near his end.

D. M. MULOCK *A Stream's Singing*.

And all the meadows, wide unrolled,
Were green and silver, green and gold,

JULIA C. R. DORR *Unanswered*.

We are blushing roses,
Bending with our fulness,
'Midst our close-capped sister buds,
Warming the green coolness.

LEIGH HUNT *Songs of the Flowers*.

Seeing only what is fair,
Sipping only what is sweet,

Leave the chaff, and take the wheat.

EMERSON *The Humble-Bee*.

Being in a ship is being in a jail, with the chance of being drowned.—SAMUEL JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson*, an. 1759.

V. THE ADVERB

The Adverb may form part of the complete subject by modifying:

(1) The essential subject (see ADVERBS MODIFYING NOUNS, etc., Part I, p. 131); as, *almost* everything was recovered.

Not walls nor hills could guard so well
Old Salem's happy ground.

(2) Any adjunct of the essential subject; as, Your *highly* esteemed favor is received; This *very* important matter must have attention; The point to be *carefully* considered is his honesty.

There as an Introductory Adverb.—The adverb *there* is used, much like *it* (see *It* AS INTRODUCTORY SUBJECT, p. 174), as an introductory word serving to carry the real subject to the close of the sentence; as, *There* is time enough; *There* is no opportunity.

In such cases, to say, "Time enough is," or "No opportunity is," would be both feeble and harsh. *There*, as an introductory adverb, is often called an *expletive*. The real subject of such a sentence is the nominative following the verb; *There is a MAN* present; *There are MEN* present. The introductory *there* so loses its meaning as an adverb of place, that another *there*, with place-meaning may be used in the same sentence; as, "because *there* was much water *THERE*." *John* 3:23. Again, *here* may be used, in the same sentence without contradiction, as, "*There* is a lad *HERE*," etc. *John* 6:9.

The as an Adverb.—*The*, preceding a comparative, in such expressions as "*the* more," "*the* less," "*the*

rather," "*the* sooner *the* better," is not the definite article, but an adverb. (See COMPARATIVES WITH *The*, p. 135.)

The, in this use, signifies "by that," "by as much," "by so much," or the like. The phrase, "*the* sooner *the* better," thus signifies "*by as much as* (it is) sooner, *by so much* (it will be) better."

(For adverbs used independently, see under INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, p. 220.)

EXERCISE

Select every adverb included in the *complete subject* of each of the following extracts, and explain the relation of the adverb to any other word or words of the subject.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

The poem now offered to the public is intended to illustrate the customs and manners which anciently prevailed on the borders of England and Scotland.—SCOTT *Lay of the Last Minstrel*. Preface.

Small habits, well pursued betimes,
May reach the dignity of crimes.

HANNAH MORE *Florio*, pt. i.

How slight a chance may raise or sink a soul!

BAILEY *Festus*. *A Country Town*.

A very great multitude spread their garments in the way.
Matt. 21:8.

Heaven's ebon vault,
Studded with stars unutterably bright,

Seems like a canopy which love has spread
To curtain her sleeping world.

SHELLEY *Queen Mab*, pt. iv.

How many a rustic Milton has passed by,
Stifling the speechless longings of his heart,
In unremitting drudgery and care!

SHELLEY *Queen Mab*, pt. v, st. 9.

VI. THE PREPOSITION

The Prepositional Phrase.—A preposition with its object and any adjunct or adjuncts of that object forms a *prepositional phrase*. A prepositional phrase may form part of the complete subject of a sentence; as:

(1) **The Essential Subject**; as, *For him to fail* would be shameful. (See THE INFINITIVE PHRASE, p. 83.)

(2) An adjective-element modifying the essential subject; as, *The hour of meeting* had arrived.

CAUTION 1.—A prepositional phrase must not be mistaken for a member of a compound essential subject. Compare the two following sentences:

The man *and his son* WERE present;

The man *with his son* WAS present;

In the first sentence "son" is *in the nominative case*, as a member of the compound subject, "man and son," with which the plural verb "were" agrees.

In the second sentence "son" is the *object of the preposition "with,"* and is therefore *in the objective case*, and can not be the subject of a verb. This leaves "man" as the only subject with which the verb can agree, and we must therefore use the singular verb, "was."

CAUTION 2.—When a prepositional phrase is used as a subject-modifier the person and number of the object of the preposition *have no effect upon the predicate verb*. Thus:

The man *with his two sons* WAS present.

Every one *of us* IS here.

Not one *of them* HAS come.

The speaker, *with a party of friends*, HAS arrived.

The president, *with the advice and consent of the senate*, appoints —.

The house *in the midst of fields and orchards* is a beautiful object.

I, *with the approval of my friends*, am determined to remain.

RULE.—In the case of an essential subject modified by a prepositional phrase, to determine what verb should be used, *drop the prepositional phrase wholly out of sight*, and make the verb agree with the essential subject, just as if the prepositional phrase did not exist, as in any one of the sentences given above.

(3) A Modifier of Any Adjunct of the Essential Subject.—A prepositional phrase, so used, may be:

(1) An adjective-element modifying a noun or noun-element of the complete subject; as, Nelson, the hero *of many battles*, was killed at Trafalgar.

Here the prepositional phrase, “*of many battles*,” is used as an adjective-element, and modifies the noun “hero,” which is an appositive of the essential subject, “Nelson.”

(2) An adverb-element modifying an adjective, participle, infinitive, etc., of the complete subject; as, The children, *eager for play*, ran out; The books, *guarded with care*, are well preserved.

(3) Appositive Use.—The prepositional phrase with *of* is often equivalent to an appositive, as, The city *of London*; He was known by the name *of Augustus*.

EXERCISE

Select every preposition and prepositional phrase in the *complete subject* in each of the following extracts, and show its relation to other words of the complete subject.

(In each case give the *essential subject*.)

The progress of rivers to the ocean is not so rapid as that of man to error.—VOLTAIRE *A Philosophical Dictionary. Rivers.*

The thing in the world I am most afraid of is fear.—MONTAIGNE *Essays. Fear.*

For here the violet in the wood
Thrills with the sweetness you shall take,
And wrapped away from life and love
The wild rose dreams, and fain would wake.
HARRIET PRESCOTT SPOFFORD *O Soft Spring Airs!* st. 4.

The flower of sweetest smell is shy and lowly.
WORDSWORTH *Sonnet. Not Love, Not War, etc.*

Only the actions of the just
Smell sweet and blossom in the dust.
SHIRLEY'S *Death's Final Conquest.*

Nothing except a battle lost can be half so melancholy as a battle won.—DUKE OF WELLINGTON *Despatch.* 1815.

The reward of one duty is the power to fulfil another.—GEORGE ELIOT *Daniel Deronda*, bk. vi, ch. 46.

The fear of some divine and supreme powers keeps men in obedience.—BURTON *Anatomy of Melancholy*, pt. iii, sec. 4, Memb. 1. Subsec. 2.

The course of my long life hath reached at last,
In fragile bark o'er a tempestuous sea,
The common harbor.

LONGFELLOW *Old Age.*

Nothing can bring you peace but the triumph of principles.—EMERSON *Essays. Of Self-Reliance.*

The hand of little employment hath the daintier sense.
SHAKESPEARE *Hamlet*, act v, sc. 1, l. 77.

VII. THE CONJUNCTION

Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences (clauses).

In the simple sentence, conjunctions are used only as connecting words or phrases.

For conjunctions connecting sentences, see THE COMPOUND SENTENCE, p. 225, and THE COMPLEX SENTENCE, p. 226.

Conjunctive Phrases.—Certain combinations of words having the force of conjunctions are best parsed as conjunctive phrases; as, *and also*, *and likewise*, *as if*, *as well as*, and the correlatives *altho—still*; *altho—yet*; *both—and*; *not—but*; *not only—but*; *not only—but also*; *not only—but likewise*.

The phrase *as well as* is often separated with correlative force, *as well—as*:

As well the singers *as* the players on instruments shall be there.—*Ps.* 87:7.

A conjunction or conjunctive phrase may form part of the complete subject of a sentence:

1. **As Connecting the Parts of a Compound Essential Subject**; as, Sun *and* rain have melted the snow; *Either* the brother *or* the sister will come.

REMARKS

(1) If the nouns or pronouns of a compound subject are connected by *and*, the verb of the predicate agrees with them jointly, and is in the plural number; as, Storm *and* darkness *have* their uses.

(2) If the nouns or pronouns of a compound subject are connected by any conjunction except *and*, the verb agrees with each singly and is singular if all the nouns or pronouns are singular, or plural if all are plural; as, Money, *or* credit, *is* necessary; *Neither* soldiers *nor* citizens *were* ready.

(For exceptional uses, see under PREDICATE, pp. 208-210.)

When more than two nouns or pronouns are connected by the same conjunction, that conjunction is usually omitted before every added word except the last; as, Men, women, *and* children attended the service; *Neither* sun, moon, *nor* star appeared.

The conjunction may, however, be retained throughout, having then the effect rather to separate the connected words, and to emphasize them by compelling the mind to move from one to the other more slowly; thus:

O night

And storm *and* darkness, ye are wondrous strong,
Yet lovely in your strength.

BYRON *Childe Harold*, can. iii, st. 92.

All the conjunctions may be omitted, with the effect of crowding and hurrying the enumeration; as, The sun, the moon, the planets, the stars, are all in motion.

2. As Connecting Adjuncts of the essential subject, or any modifiers of such adjuncts; as, Earnest *and* diligent students will succeed; The soil, rich *and* fertile, favors agriculture; Money well *and* honestly earned, is a worthy possession.

Or and Nor in Negative Statements.—After *neither*, *nor* must be used; as, *Neither* the one *nor* the other will answer. After *not*, either *or* or *nor* may be used, but with some difference of meaning.

Thus, if we say, "*Not a book or paper was missing*," "book" and "paper" are very closely connected; but if we say, "*Not a book nor paper was missing*," "book" and "paper" are thought of separately, and "paper" somewhat as an added item; hence, the tendency is to repeat the article after *nor*, "*Not a book nor a paper*," as if we said (as we might say), "*Not a book nor (even) a paper*." After the adjective *no*, either *or* or *nor* may be used with much the same distinction;

as, "*No friend or neighbor stood by him*"; "*No friend nor foe reproached him.*"

In poetry *nor* is often used for *neither*; as,

I saw him next alone;
Nor camp nor chief his steps attended.

As and Or with Appositive Force.—"Lincoln, *as* president, made the address." The Sequoia, *or* redwood, grows to an immense height.

Elements of the Same Class Connected

Conjunctions connecting words or phrases must connect those of the same class, as nouns with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, etc.

Correlative conjunctions or conjunctive phrases should be so placed as to apply directly to the words that are to be so connected. To say, "*Not only* a man rich *but* influential is required" is both awkward and obscure; the sentence becomes clear when the conjunctive phrase "not only" is correctly placed,—"*A man not only* rich *but* influential is required."

EXERCISE

Select every conjunction or conjunctive phrase included in the *complete subject* in each sentence of the following extracts, and show its relation to other words of the subject; note and explain omission of conjunctions. (Compare pp. 147-148; 226-227.)

In every case give the *essential subject*.

Plenty, as well as Want, can separate friends.—COWLEY *Davideis*, bk. iii, l. 205.

A scar nobly got, or a noble scar, is a good livery of honor. SHAKESPEARE *All's Well That Ends Well*, act iv, sc. 5, l. 105.

Sleep, riches, and health, to be truly enjoyed, must be interrupted.—RICHTER *Flower, Fruit, and Thorn Pieces*, ch. 8.

No mighty trance, or breathèd spell
Inspires the pale-eyed priest from the prophetic cell.
MILTON *Hymn on Christ's Nativity*, l. 173.

The genius, wit, and spirit of a nation are discovered in its proverbs.—BACON.

The blossoms and leaves in plenty
From the apple-tree fall each day;
The merry breezes approach them,
And with them merrily play.
HEINE *Book of Songs. Lyrical Interlude*. No. 63.

Shall ignorance of good and ill
Dare to direct the eternal will?
GAY *The Father and Jupiter*.

Nothing in history or fiction approaches the horrors . . . of that night.—MACAULAY *Essay on Lord Clive*.

VIII. THE INTERJECTION

The *Interjection* is not grammatically included in the subject of a sentence, unless as a quotation; as, "*Alas!*" was his cry. (See INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, p. 221.)

TO SELECT THE ESSENTIAL SUBJECT

The essential subject must be a *noun*, a *pronoun*—or some word or phrase *used as a noun*, which we call a *noun-element*.

FORMS TO BE RULED OUT

The essential subject can *not* be:

A noun, pronoun, or noun-element, which is itself the object of a participle, an infinitive, or a preposition. Thus:

Opening the door, the man entered the room;
To gain the advantage, the boy resorted to a trick;
For this reason the lawyer undertook the case.

"Door," "advantage," or "reason" can not be the essential subject in either of the sentences above given, because: "door" is the *object* of the participle "opening";—"advantage" is the *object* of the infinitive "to gain";—and "reason" is the *object* of the preposition "for." Hence the essential subject in each sentence must be the only noun left; *viz.*: in the first, "man"; in the second, "boy"; and in the third, "lawyer."

A word or phrase that is otherwise provided for in a sentence can not be the essential subject of that sentence.

Thus many words or phrases may often be *ruled out*, leaving the essential subject distinct, as the only word or phrase left that can be so used.

EXAMPLE

This will be found true in the longest and most complicated sentence. Thus:

Fringed by the rapid *Meuse* and enclosed by gently rolling *hills* cultivated to their *crests*, or by abrupt *precipices* of *limestone* crowned with *verdure*, the broad, crescent-shaped *plain*||was divided by numerous hedge-rows.

Here the complete subject, extending to the verb "was divided," contains twenty-eight words; among these are seven nouns, some singular and some plural (the nouns being printed in italics). Which of these seven nouns is the *essential subject* of the sentence?

Is it the noun "Meuse"? That is impossible, because "Meuse" is the *object* of the preposition "by," and must be in the objective case, and hence can not be the subject of a verb or of the sentence. The next noun is "hills"; can that be the essential subject? No, for "hills" is the *object* of the preposition "by." Can "crests," then, be the essential subject? No, for "crests" is the *object* of the preposition "to." We find further that "precipices" is the *object* of the preposition "by"; "limestone" is the *object* of the preposition "of"; and "verdure" is the *object* of the preposition "with." Thus we have disposed of six nouns, no one of which can be the essential subject. We have left the noun "plain," which is the subject of the verb "was divided," and the *essential subject* of the sentence.

ANALYSIS AND SYNTHESIS COMPARED

We might have said at first by examining the *verb* that the essential subject must be in the singular number. This is a very good way in studying a sentence which we know to be correctly made (analysis), but will not help us in framing a sentence of our own (synthesis), where we have to decide what the verb shall be; nor will it help us to analyze a doubtful sentence, where we have to decide whether or not the verb is correctly used. When the question is, "Shall we say *was divided* or *were divided*?" we need to be able to *select the essential subject by and for itself*, in order to determine what the verb must be.

(For the COMPOUND ESSENTIAL SUBJECT, see. p. 166.)

EXERCISE

Select the essential subject of each of the following sentences:

Things of greatest profit are set forth with least price.

Through zeal, knowledge is gotten. Through lack of zeal, knowledge is lost.

Throwing off his pea-jacket the sailor leaped on the rail and dove into the sea.

The principal thing to remember in preparing an abstract is its object or purpose.

The great art in writing advertisements is the finding out of a proper method to catch the reader's eye.

By following this method for a time the student will learn to keep his thoughts in order.

The pronunciation of English in the time of Queen Elizabeth was different in some respects from the pronunciation of the present day.

The various kinds of sentence-structure express various relations of thought.

On this side of the green the broken line of thatched cottages was continued nearly to the churchyard gate.

High up against the horizon were the huge conical masses of the hills.

An uneducated German girl in the delirium of fever spoke Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

All the way across the strait in a line of flame the bottom of the sea seemed to have cracked open.

B. THE PREDICATE

The Complete Predicate may contain all the parts of speech, and must contain the *finite verb* (which the subject ordinarily can not contain).

The essential predicate must be a finite verb.

**PARTS OF SPEECH IN THE COMPLETE
PREDICATE****I. THE NOUN**

The noun may be used in the predicate in either one of the three cases.

A. The Nominative Case

1. **The Predicate Nominative.** (See RULES OF CASE IN NOUNS, I (2), Part I, p. 20.)

2. **The Nominative after Infinitive or Participle.**—The infinitive or participle of any copulative verb (as *appear, be, seem*, etc.) may be followed by a noun in the nominative case; as, He was shy on account of being a *stranger*. (Compare PRONOUN, p. 200, A, 2.)

EXCEPTION

If the infinitive has a subject in the objective case, or if the participle is modifier of a noun or pronoun in the objective case, the noun following such infinitive or participle is also in the objective case; as, I expect HIM to be a *candidate*; I saw THEM made *prisoners*.

3. **The Nominative by Apposition.**—A noun in apposition with the predicate nominative, or with any other nominative included in the complete predicate, must also be in the nominative case; as, The prisoner was Columbus, the *discoverer* of America.

(For the **Nominative Absolute**, see under INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS, p. 219.)

B. The Possessive Case

4. **As a Modifier.**—A noun in the possessive case may be used in the predicate when it modifies another noun or a participle of the complete predicate; as, The son

lives in his *father's* house; Everything depends on the *man's* keeping the appointment.

C. The Objective Case

A noun in the objective case may be used in the complete predicate as:

5. The Direct Object of the Predicate Verb; as, Alexander conquered *Persia*.

When the subject and the direct object are both nouns, the regular order of words is—*subject, verb, object*.

6. The Indirect Object.—Verbs of *giving, telling, providing*, and the like, as *allow, buy, deny, find, give, grant, hand, make, obtain, offer, pass, pay, procure, promise, provide, secure, send, telegraph, telephone, tell, write*, and some others, take an *indirect object* denoting the person to or for whom something is done; as, Buy the *boy* a set of tools; Give the *men* my orders; Telegraph the *agent* the price.

REMARKS

* (1) This indirect object, when used without a preposition, always *precedes* the direct object.

(2) The indirect object is the object of a preposition understood. This will be seen by changing the order.

(3) *When the indirect object follows the direct object, the preposition must be expressed*; as, Buy a set of tools *for* the boy; Give my orders *to* the men; Telegraph the price *to* the agent.

7. The Secondary Object.—Verbs of *making or naming*, as *appoint, call, choose, constitute, elect, find, make, name, ordain*, and the like, may take a *secondary object* denoting office, rank, name, title, etc.; as, The

people elected Washington *president*; They named the child *John*.

(Such verbs of making or naming are often called *Factitive Verbs*.)

The *secondary object* follows the *direct object*.

CAUTION.—*Make* in the sense of “construct” takes an **indirect object**, which (when used without a preposition) always *precedes* the direct object; as, *Make the customer a suit of clothes*.

Make in the sense of “appoint or constitute” takes a **secondary object**, which always *follows* the direct object *without a preposition*; as, *They made John captain*.

8. **The Cognate Object.**—Some intransitive verbs take as an object a noun whose meaning is similar (cognate) to that of the verb; this is called the *Cognate Object*; as, He **LIVED** a wretched *life*; He **SLEPT** a dreamless *sleep*.

9. **The Object of Infinitive or Participle**; as, Tell the pupils to bring *pencils*; Be faithful in learning your *lessons*.

10. **The Subject of an Infinitive**; as, I believe the *man* to be honest. (See RULES OF CASE IN NOUNS, PART I, p. 22, (3); also, USES OF THE INFINITIVE, PART I, p. 83 (8).)

11. **The Object of a Preposition**; as, He paid a high price for the *property*.

12. **The Objective of Weight, Measure, etc.**—Nouns denoting *distance, measure, time, value, weight*, etc., are often used in the objective case without a preposition; as, He ran a *mile*; She is ten *years* old; The chimney is two hundred *feet* high.

In the Passive Construction

The *direct object* of an active verb becomes the *subject* of the passive.

(See CHANGE FROM ACTIVE TO PASSIVE, PART I, p. 116.)

The *subject* of the active verb follows the passive form as object of the preposition *BY*.

The *indirect object* remains the indirect object, in the objective case, governed by a preposition expressed or understood. Thus:

Active Form.—That *man* sold the *stranger* a *horse*;

Passive Form.—A *horse* was sold to the *stranger* *BY* that *man*.

The *secondary object* after a verb of *making* or *naming* (pp. 196-197) becomes the *predicate nominative* after the passive of that verb.

Active Form.—The *voters* elected *McKinley* *president*;

Passive Form.—*McKinley* was elected *president* by the *voters*.

Indirect and Secondary Objects Contrasted

The *indirect object* stays in the objective case after the passive verb, as the object of a preposition (expressed or understood).

The *secondary object* is changed to the nominative case, as the predicate nominative after the passive verb.

13. The Retained Object.—Sometimes the *indirect object* of an active verb is made the *subject* of the passive, and the *direct object* is *retained* in the objective case, tho not governed by any verb or preposition. Thus:

Active Form.—The teacher gave the boy a *book*;

Passive Form.—The boy was given a *book* by the teacher.

Here "book" can not be the *subject* of the verb "was given," because that verb has "boy" for its subject; it can not be the

object of that verb, because a passive verb does not take an object. No preposition can be supplied to govern "book." The only explanation is that "book" is carried over unchanged from the active to the passive construction. Hence, the noun "book" is to be parsed as in the objective case, the *retained object* after the verb "was given."*

REMARKS

In some verb-phrases ending in a preposition, as to *laugh at*, to *take notice* (*possession*, etc.) *of*, to *dispense with*, the effect is like that of a compound verb; as, The owner *took possession of* THE PROPERTY.

In the passive use of such a verb we may say "THE PROPERTY *was taken possession of* by the owner."

II. THE PRONOUN

The uses of the pronoun in the predicate are in nearly all respects the same as those of the noun, and the same rules for the most part apply to both. Some differences may be noted at certain points. (For full explanations of the various terms compare the numbers following with the corresponding numbers, under THE NOUN, pp. 195-199.)

A. The Nominative Case

1. The Predicate Nominative; as, This is *he*; It is *I*.

CAUTION.—Such forms as, "It's *me*," "That's *him*," etc., are erroneous.

A relative or an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case, tho placed at the beginning of the sentence, is *really the predicate nominative*; hence the verb agrees, not with the interrogative pronoun preceding it, but with the noun or pronoun following it (see INVERSION, p. 223), and we say, "Who *are* you?" "Which *are* the strangers?" "What *am* I?" (Compare p. 201.)

* NOTE.—This construction is often called the *indirect passive* or the *inverted passive*. It is censured by some critics, but is sustained by good authority.

2. The Nominative after an Infinitive or Participle; as, I could wish to be *he*; I did not think of its being *I*.

This use, however, is rare, and often harsh or clumsy, and therefore in general to be avoided.

CAUTION.—After an infinitive with a subject in the objective case, or after a participle agreeing with a noun or pronoun in the objective case, the pronoun following such infinitive or participle must be in the objective case; as, I understood *it* to be *him*.

3. The Nominative by Apposition; as, It is your father, *I*, the king.

This use is also rare, a pronoun being seldom used under ordinary circumstances as an appositive.

B. The Possessive Case

4. As a Modifier.—A pronoun in the possessive case may be used in the predicate (as in the subject) when it modifies any noun or participle of the complete predicate; as, Did any one take *my* book? I had no idea of *his* coming.

The possessives *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* are used as nouns in the predicate, as in the subject. (See under SUBJECT, p. 176.)

C. The Objective Case

5. The Direct Object.—A pronoun in the complete predicate may be the *direct object* of the predicate verb; as, His father sent *him*; I want no money from *them*.

Position of the Direct Object

The pronoun used as the *direct object* of a verb, like the noun, usually *follows that verb*, as in the examples above given.

EXCEPTIONS

(a) As the personal pronouns, and the pronoun *who*, have special forms in the objective different from the nominative, they are not necessarily limited to the place after the verb, but may be used in some other position in the sentence.

Me he restored unto mine office.—*Gen.* 41:13.

Whom he would he slew; and *whom* he would he kept alive; and *whom* he would he set up; and *whom* he would he put down.—*Dan.* 5:19.

(b) The relative or interrogative pronouns *whom*, *which*, and *what* regularly precede the verb by which they are governed, standing usually at the beginning of the clause or sentence; as, *Whom* did you meet? *Which* will you take? *What* did they pay him? Here the pronouns "whom," "which," and "what" are in the objective after the verbs "meet," "take," and "pay." (Compare p. 199.)

CAUTION.—Such expressions as "*Who* did you meet?" (tho sometimes used colloquially even by educated people) are inaccurate. We may say:

Whom did you meet at the door?

Who was at the door?

Who was employed by you?

Whom did you employ?

As the case of a personal pronoun is *shown by its form*, it may take almost any position in the sentence, the nominative coming at times after the direct object of the verb; as, That messenger *I* sent to you.

6. **The Indirect Object.**—The pronoun is very frequently used as the *indirect object* after verbs of giving, sending, etc., and is treated in all respects like the noun in similar use. Thus:

Buy *him* a set of tools;

Find *her* a home;

Give *them* my orders;

He told *them* a story.

As with the noun, a pronoun used as an *indirect object* without a preposition must *precede* the direct object; if it *follows* the *direct object*, it must take a preposition, *to* or *for*; as,

Buy a set of tools *for* him;
Find a home *for* her;
Give my orders *to* them;
He told a story *to* them.

7-8. The Secondary Object; The Cognate Object.
—A pronoun is rarely, if ever, used as the *secondary object*, and never as the *cognate object* of a verb.

9. The Object of an Infinitive or Participle; as, My father promised to send *them*; I have not known of his meeting *her*.

10. The Subject of an Infinitive; as, I believe *him* to be honest. (See USES OF THE INFINITIVE, Part I, p. 83.)

11. The Object of a Preposition; as, These books belong *to me*.

12. (No use of pronoun corresponding to 12 of NOUN.)

13. The Passive Construction; The Retained Object.
—The rules and explanations for these items given under the NOUN (p. 198) apply directly to the pronoun, also. Thus:

Active Form.—That man sold *him* a horse.

Passive Form.—A horse was sold *him* (or *to him*) by that man.

(It should be noted that the pronoun omits the preposition somewhat more readily than the noun.)

Active Form.—The teacher gave *him* a BOOK.

Passive Form.—*He* was given a BOOK by the teacher (So in other similar instances.)

EXERCISE

Find and parse every noun and pronoun in the complete predicate of each sentence of the following extracts, explaining the construction in each case.

Where'er I roam, whatever realms to see,
My heart untraveled, fondly turns to thee.

GOLDSMITH *Traveler*, l. 7.

The best way to keep good acts in memory is to refresh them with new.—*Attributed to CATO by BACON Apothegms*, No. 247.

And they three passed over the white sands, between the rocks, silent as the shadows.—COLERIDGE *The Wanderings of Cain*.

Breathe thy balm upon the lonely,
Gentle Sleep!
As the twilight breezes bless
With sweet scents the wilderness,
Ah, let warm white dove-wings only
Round them sweep!

LUCY LARCOM *Sleep Song*.

For every social wrong there must be a remedy. But the remedy can be nothing less than the abolition of the wrong.—HENRY GEORGE *Social Problems*, ch. 9.

Those who think must govern those that toil.

GOLDSMITH *The Traveler*, l. 372.

Our bugles sang truce, for the night-cloud had lowered,
And the sentinel stars set their watch in the sky.

CAMPBELL *The Soldier's Dream*.

A people is but the attempt of many
To rise to the completer life of one.

ROBERT BROWNING *Luria*, act v, l. 334.

III. THE ADJECTIVE

The Adjective may be used in the predicate as:

1. **The Predicate Adjective** (Modifying the Subject), after an intransitive or a passive verb (p. 61); as, Money is *useful*; The light is *bright*; the weather grows *cold*; The plan seems *wise*; He was considered *prosperous*; He was called *great*.

REMARKS

(1) The *predicate adjective* exactly corresponds in use to the predicate noun (see THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE, p. 21, I, (2), adding after the predicate verb something that applies to the *subject* of that verb. Using the *predicate noun*, we say, "He seemed a *hero*"; using the *predicate adjective*, we say, "He seemed *heroic*."

(2) This use of a predicate adjective modifying the subject of the sentence is to be distinguished from mere position of an adjective in the predicate modifying a noun that is also in the predicate. If we say, "The man was *late*" "*late*," tho in the *predicate* modifies "man," the *subject*. But if we say, "The man came at a *late* hour," the adjective "*late*" does *not* modify the *subject*, "man," but modifies the *predicate noun* "hour." It is only an adjective standing in the predicate, but *modifying the subject* that is called distinctively a "predicate adjective."

Adjective or Adverb.—To determine when a predicate adjective should be used, and when an adverb, see THE PREDICATE ADVERB, p. 211.

2. **An Indefinite Modifier after an Infinitive or Participle**; as, He wished to be *good*; He believed in being *good*.

REMARKS

Here the adjective may be said to be used *indefinitely*, not modifying any definite noun. It is sufficient in such cases to call the adjective "an indefinite modifier" or an "adjective used indefinitely."

3. A Modifier after a Verb of Calling, Naming, etc.—After verbs of *making, calling, choosing*, etc. (called *factitive* verbs), an adjective is used precisely as a noun is used when it is the *secondary object* (see SECONDARY OBJECT under NOUN, p. 196); as, They made him *angry*; They called him *wise*.

When the active form is changed to the passive, such an adjective is retained; as, He was made *angry*. Here it becomes a *predicate adjective* modifying the subject.

4. A Modifier of Any Noun or Pronoun.—Any noun or pronoun, in any case, included in the complete predicate, may be modified by an adjective; as, This is the *same* man; He loved the *faithful* student. (Compare THE PREDICATE ADJECTIVE, p. 204, Remark 2.)

IV. THE VERB

The Essential Predicate of a sentence is always a finite verb or a series of finite verbs agreeing with the same essential subject (see THE COMPOUND ESSENTIAL PREDICATE, p. 166); as, The boy *runs*; The boy *runs* AND *slides*; The sky *is* blue; The owner *sold* the house.

Verbs of Complete and of Incomplete Predication.—In sentence-construction verbs are divided into:

(1) **Verbs of Complete Predication**, any one of which can by itself make a complete predicate; as, The boy *runs*; The child *sleeps*.

(2) **Verbs of Incomplete Predication**, no one of which can by itself make a complete predicate; as, That *seems*—; The Romans *destroyed*—; where we at once ask for something to complete the sentence: What or how does that *seem*? What did the Romans *destroy*?

Thus all transitive verbs, since they require an object to complete the sense, are verbs of incomplete predication; so are the many verbs that require a predicate nominative, a predicate adjective, etc. Some of these have received special names; as:

The Copula

The verb *be*, because of its connective use, has been often called the *copula* or "link," linking the essential subject with the predicate nominative or predicate adjective.

The verb *be*, when called the *copula*, is still the *predicate verb*; it is the *essential predicate*, as being the one verb *essential* to the construction of the sentence, which would not be a sentence without it. Thus in the sentence "Time is money," the verb "is" is the *essential predicate*—the one finite verb by which the group of words becomes a sentence; "is money" is the *complete predicate*.

Copulative Verbs

There are many other intransitive verbs, as *appear*, *become*, *seem*, etc., which connect the subject with a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective, and are hence called *copulative verbs*.

Among intransitive verbs used in a weakened sense, approaching that of *be* or *become*, are the following: *come*, *continue*, *feel*, *get*, *go*, *grow*, *keep*, *lie*, *look*, *prove*, *remain*, *run*, *sit*, *sound*, *stay*, *turn*, *wax*; as, to *come* true (as a prediction); to *continue* faithful; to *feel* tired; to *get* rested; to *go* lame; to *grow* weary; to *keep* busy; to *lie* hid; to *look* pale; to *prove* false; to *remain* unanswered; to *run* mad; to *sit* mute; to *sound* fair; to *stand* opposed; to *stay* settled; to *turn* traitor; to *wax* great.

The Complement

The word or phrase used after a verb of incomplete predication to fill up the meaning of the sentence is often called the *complement* (from the Latin *compleo*, "fill up" complete).

REMARKS

The complements have received various names. The predicate nominative, as well as the predicate adjective, has been called the *attribute complement*; the direct object has been termed the *object complement*, etc.

But all this is wholly academic. In practical life what we need is to note the different *parts of speech* and their *relations* to the predicate verb—to know, for instance, that a certain word is a *noun used as the direct object of a verb*. That explains it effectually. Then it does not matter whether we know it as an *object complement* or not.

Agreement of the Verb

A finite verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

This rule covers all ordinary cases; only matters requiring special notice will here be considered.

A. Person

When the elements of a compound subject are of *different persons*, the verb agrees with the first person in preference to the second or third, and with the second in preference to the third.

In the *order of words* the second person precedes the third, and the second and third precede the first.

Thus we may say, Either you or I *am* in error; Either you or he *are* to blame.

REMARKS

Such constructions, however, are undesirable. We may avoid them by using a verb which agrees with the first nominative,* and repeating the verb (in the proper person

* NOTE.—As the subject of a finite verb must be in the nominative case, the word *nominative* may be used to represent any noun-element—noun, pronoun, adjective, participle, or phrase—that may be used as the subject.

and number) after the other or others; as, Either you *are* in error or I *am*, Either you *are* to blame or he *is*; or by using one of the uninflected auxiliaries (*may, can, must, shall, or will*), where person and number make no difference; as, Either you or I *must be* in error.

For the person of a verb with an *interrogative pronoun*, see under NUMBER (p. 210).

For the person of a verb with a *relative pronoun*, see COMPLEX SENTENCE, VERBS IN RELATIVE CLAUSES (p. 228).

B. Number

1. A collective noun (Part I, p. 4), tho singular in form, may take a verb either in the singular or the plural number, according as it refers to the objects composing it as one aggregate or as separate individuals; as, The audience *was* large; The audience *were divided* in opinion.

2. Certain nouns plural in form are singular in construction, and take verbs in the singular number. (See PLURALS TREATED AS SINGULARS, p. 16.)

3. Two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* in a compound subject form a *plural* subject, and take a verb in the plural.* (See p. 188.)

EXCEPTIONS

(1) When two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* denote the same person or thing, they take a verb in the singular; as, The husband *and* father *was devoted* to his family.

(2) When two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* are modified by *each, every, or no*, they are taken separately and have a verb in the singular number; as, *EACH* officer *and* [*EACH*] soldier *was* at his post; *EVERY* teacher *and* [*EVERY*] pupil *was* ready; No sentence *and* no word *is* to be neglected.

* NOTE.—A singular noun modified by two or more adjectives denoting different aspects or varieties of an object may take a plural verb; as, *Green and Roman ARCHITECTURE were* different in type.

(3) When two or more singular nominatives connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished by some added word or words, as *also*, *as well as*, *commonly*, *even*, *not*, *often*, *oftentimes*, *perhaps*, *too*, *usually*, or the like, they are as a rule taken separately, and with a verb in the singular; as, *Famine, and ALSO pestilence, threatens the besieged city; Pity, and NOT fear, makes me pause.*

4. Two or more singular nominatives connected by any conjunction except *and* (as *or*, *nor*, etc.) are considered separately and take a verb in the singular.

5. When the compound essential subject is made up of nouns or pronouns *different in number*, the verb agrees with *the noun or pronoun nearest to it*, whatever the connecting conjunction may be.

REMARKS

(a) In such case the *plural nominative* should be placed *last*, so as to come just before the verb; as, *The ship and all the passengers were lost; Either the horse or the mules have eaten the grain.*

(b) Such constructions, however, are undesirable, and it is better to avoid them by changing the form of expression; as, *The ship, with all the passengers, was lost; The grain has been eaten either by the horse or the mules.*

(c) When the verb comes *between the nominatives* of a compound subject it agrees with the nominative immediately preceding it, being singular or plural accordingly, and is to be mentally supplied with each of the following nominatives, in such number as each may require; as, *The teacher was waiting, and all the pupils [were waiting]; The pupils were interested, and the teacher also [was interested].*

(d) When the verb is placed *before its subject* and preceded by an introductory word like *there* or *such*, the verb agrees with the first of the following nominatives, and is understood with the other or others, in such number as each may require; as, *THERE was time enough, men enough, and money enough.*

6. When *it* is used as an introductory pronoun (pp. 34, 174), that pronoun is itself the essential subject, with which the verb agrees, and the verb is accordingly in the singular number, tho the predicate nominative may be in the plural; as, *It is the philosophers who have taught the worth of patience.*

7. An *interrogative pronoun* commonly takes a verb in the *third person singular*; as, *Who is there?*

But when a noun or pronoun in the same construction follows the verb, the verb takes the person and number of the nominative that follows it; as, *Who am I? Which are the specimens? What are we against that host?*

The reason for this is that the interrogative pronoun in such use is a *predicate nominative* placed at the beginning of the sentence by inversion. (See THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE, p. 199.)

The Infinitive in the Predicate.—(See USES OF THE INFINITIVE, (2), (3), (4), (5), (6), pp. 82-83.)

An infinitive phrase may be used as:

1. **The Predicate Nominative;**

2. **The Object** of a verb or of a participle.

3. **An Adverbial Modifier** of the essential predicate or of any verb, adjective, or adverb contained in the complete predicate; as, *He shouted in order to alarm the camp; This is important for you to know; We arrived early enough to be admitted;*

4. **An Adjective Element** modifying any noun or pronoun in the complete predicate; as, *He formed a scheme to defraud his creditors.*

The Participle in the Predicate.—In the predicate of a sentence, the participle may be:

(a) Used as a noun:

1. **The Predicate Nominative;** as, *seeing is believing;*

2. **The Direct Object** of the predicate verb or of a preposition; as, I hate *lying*; He was ruined by *speculating*.

(b) Used as an adjective:

3. **A Modifier** of any noun or pronoun included in the complete predicate; as, We found him *trying* to open the door.

A Participial Phrase is often used as an adverb-element modifying the essential predicate or any adjective or adverb included in the complete predicate; as, He failed *by attempting the impossible*; The traitor was skilful *in framing excuses*.

V. THE ADVERB

An adverb may be used in the complete predicate (1) as a modifier of the predicate verb; or, (2) as a modifier of any adjective, infinitive, participle, or adverb, or as an adjunct of a noun or pronoun of the complete predicate. (See THE ADVERB, Part I, p. 131.)

The Predicate Adverb (often called the **Adverb Complement**).—An intransitive verb may take an adverb as a complement to complete the sense; as, The man is *here*; The letter is *there*.

In such use the adverb is often closely parallel in effect to the predicate adjective (p. 204), so that it may be called the *predicate adverb*. Thus we may say with the adjective, "The man is *present*," or with the adverb, "The man is *here*," and the two statements are almost identical.

Adjective or Adverb.—Whether to use at the close of a sentence a predicate adjective or an adverb, is often a perplexing question.

Which of the following constructions shall we use?

They escaped *safe* to land;

They escaped *safely* to land.

The answer is, that either is right, according to our point of view. If we think of the *condition of the people* who escaped, just as if we said, "They were *safe*," we should say, "They escaped *safe* to land."

But if we are thinking of the *manner of the escape*—without accident or loss of life—we should say, "They escaped *safely* to land."

With such words as *look, smell, taste*, etc., we need to note carefully whether the reference is to the subject or to the verb.

If the reference is to *a quality of the person or thing denoting the subject*, use the adjective; as, That hat looks *pretty*; The flower smells *sweet*; This fruit tastes *good*; I feel *hot*; You look *sad*.

But if the reference is to *the manner of the action*, use the adverb; as, He looked *closely* at the signature; He smelt *suspiciously* the odor of the medicine.

VI. THE PREPOSITION

Prepositions and prepositional phrases, as used in the complete predicate, are subject to essentially the same rules as when used in the complete subject. (See SUBJECT, pp. 185-186.)

Prepositional Phrases as Adverbs.—Prepositional phrases used adverbially are very numerous, and often more explicit than adverbs of similar meaning. Thus, "I arrived *at that very instant*" is far more precise, as well as more emphatic, than "I arrived *then*."

VII. THE CONJUNCTION

The use of conjunctions as connecting elements of the predicate is precisely similar to their use as connecting elements of the subject. (See under SUBJECT, pp. 188-189.)

VIII. THE INTERJECTION

The interjection can be a part of the complete predicate only in some rare case when it is used as a quotation, being the predicate nominative or the direct object of the verb; as, His cry was "*Alas!*" He cried "*Alas!*"

TO SELECT THE ESSENTIAL PREDICATE

A. IN ANALYSIS

(1) When there is *but one finite verb in the sentence*, that verb is the essential predicate.

Thus, turn to the sentence given for analysis under the Essential Subject, p. 192.

Fringed by the rapid Meuse and enclosed by gently rolling hills cultivated to their crests, or by abrupt precipices of limestone crowned with verdure, the broad, crescent-shaped plain||*was divided* by numerous hedgerows.

In this sentence of thirty-three words there is but one finite verb, "*was divided*," which is accordingly the *essential predicate* of the sentence. It was shown under SUBJECT that, of the seven nouns, in the complete subject, only one, the noun "*plain*," could be the *essential subject*. With that the verb "*was divided*" correctly agrees.

The words "*by numerous hedge-rows*" form a prepositional phrase, used as an adverb, modifying the verb "*was divided*," and forming with it the *complete predicate*.

However many other words may be accumulated around it, *the one finite verb* of such a sentence is *the essential predicate*. Thus:

John Paul Jones,||*with* his own hands, *raised* the first American naval flag, under a salute of thirteen guns.

Here "*raised*"—the one finite verb of the sentence—is the *essential predicate*.

"With his own hands" and "under a salute," etc., are prepositional phrases, used as adverbs, modifying the verb "raised," and showing by what means and to what accompaniment the act was performed. The noun "flag," modified by the adjectives "first," "American," and "naval," is the object of the verb "raised." That is, all the words after "Jones"—sixteen words—form the *complete predicate*, of which the finite verb "raised" forms the *essential predicate*.

This verb agrees with the *essential subject* "Jones," with which the names "John" and "Paul" are in apposition. (See Part I, p. 23.)

The sentence is, therefore, correctly constructed.

(1) The length of the sentence makes no difference grammatically. If a sentence, however long or short, contains but one *finite verb*, that sentence is a simple sentence, and *that one finite verb* is the essential predicate.

(2) When there is *more than one finite verb in the sentence*, see if each of those verbs agrees with the essential subject (simple or compound). If so, those verbs form a *compound essential predicate*. (See p. 166.) Thus:

John *runs* and *slides*.

Here we have, not two sentences or clauses, but one simple sentence, because both the verbs agree with the same essential subject. The verbs "runs" and "slides" affirm two connected acts of one and the same person, "John." Those two verbs, therefore, form one compound predicate (see p. 166). The same would be true if the essential subject were compound; as,

John and James *run* and *slide*.

As the compound essential subject "John and James" consists of two nouns connected by "and," that compound subject requires a plural verb or verbs (p. 208). Both verbs of this sentence must, therefore, be in the plural, because two persons are performing each action. The essential predicate

is, accordingly, "run and slide"; the sentence is correctly formed, and is a simple sentence.

The same treatment is to be given to any number of verbs so joined, as when Tennyson ("Day Dream, Revival," st. 2, l. 6), says of the awakening of life in the enchanted palace:

"The palace *banged* and *buzzed* and *clackt*."

The one "palace" did all those acts, and the three connected verbs form one compound predicate in agreement with the one subject, "palace."

NOTE 1.—If verbs in a sentence *agree with different subjects*, the sentence is *not a simple sentence*, but is a compound or complex sentence. Thus:

My boat is on the shore,
And my bark is on the sea.

Here the first "is" agrees with "boat," and the second "is" agrees with "bark." We have two subjects, and two predicates, and the sentence is not a simple, but a compound, sentence. (See COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES, p. 224.)

NOTE 2.—As previously stated, the length of the sentence has nothing to do with the matter. Thus:

My brother wears a martial plume,
And serves within a distant land.

There is here one singular noun as subject, "brother," with which the verb "wears" agrees, and also the verb "serves." These two verbs, therefore, form the *compound essential predicate*, "wears and serves," of the one simple sentence.

B. IN SYNTHESIS

In framing a sentence: (1) Determine what the essential subject is, or is to be; (2) Choose a verb (or verbs) of the proper person and number to agree with that essential subject, according to the directions already given.

CAUTION.—It is of the utmost importance to remember in this whole matter that appositives (p. 170), possessives (pp. 170-171), and prepositional phrases (pp. 171-172), *have nothing whatever to do with the form of the verb*; the verb

reaches past all modifiers, and agrees with the essential subject just as if no other words were associated with it.

Thus, in the example analysed under the SUBJECT (p. 192), when we have determined that, out of the seven nouns, the *essential subject* is the one noun, "plain," we know that any verb connected with it must be in the singular number, and we must say "*was* divided," and not "*were* divided."

Or suppose we have in mind a sentence like the following:

The various kinds of sentence-structure — various relations of thought.

For the essential predicate we wish to use some form of the verb "express." Shall we say "express" or "expresses?" Looking for the essential subject, we see that it is not the nearest noun, "sentence-structure," because that is the object of the preposition "of," and can not be the subject of any verb. The essential subject must then be the plural noun "kinds," requiring a plural verb, "express," and not "expresses," and our sentence will be:

The various kinds of sentence-structure *express*
various relations of thought.

When we have found the *essential subject* and the *essential predicate*, it is a comparatively easy matter to fit other elements of the sentence about the *essential subject* to form the *complete subject*, and about the *essential predicate* to form the *complete predicate*, until all are disposed of.

CAUTION.—It must be noted, however, that the various elements will *not always be found placed in their grammatical order*, which must be learned from the meaning and relations of the words or phrases used. Thus, if I say, "This letter you will deliver at my house," the noun "letter" is the object of the verb "will deliver," and would regularly follow that verb, but, for the sake of emphasis, is placed at the beginning of the sentence, by what is called *inversion*, as will be more fully explained on pp. 222-225.

EXERCISE

Find the essential predicate in each of the following sentences, and explain its agreement with the essential subject.

To have read the greatest works of any great poet is a possession added to the best things of life.—SWINBURNE *Essays and Studies*. Victor Hugo *L'Année Terrible*.

According to the state of a man's conscience, so do hope and fear on account of his deeds arise in his mind.

OVID *Fasti*, I, 485.

An old man in his rudiments is a disgraceful object. It is for youth to acquire, and for age to apply.

SENECA *Epistolæ Ad Lucilium*, xxxvi, 4.

The confounding of all right and wrong, in wild fury, has averted from us the gracious favor of the gods.

CATULLUS *Carmina*, lxiv, 406.

The skilful class of flatterers praise the discourse of an ignorant friend and the face of a deformed one.

JUVENAL *Satiræ*, iii, 86.

O'er Egypt's land of memory floods are level,
And they are thine, O Nile!

SHELLEY *Sonnet. To the Nile*.

In lapidary inscriptions a man is not upon oath.

SAMUEL JOHNSON *Boswell's Life of Johnson*. 1775.

The glory of ancestors sheds a light around posterity; it allows neither their good nor their bad qualities to remain in obscurity.

SALLUST *Jugurtha*, lxxxv.

To some men popularity is always suspicious. Enjoying none themselves, they are prone to suspect the validity of those attainments which command it.

GEO. HENRY LEWES *The Spanish Drama*, ch. iii.

Innocence in genius, and candor in power, are both noble qualities.

MADAME DE STAËL *Germany*, pt. ii, ch. viii.

Independent Elements

Certain words or phrases which may be attached to a sentence, and connected with it in thought, without forming part of the grammatical structure, are called *Independent Elements*.

To call an expression an *independent element* is simply to say that it is—and has a right to be—in its place, as contributing to the sense, without being the subject, object, or modifier of anything, or in any way grammatically connected with the rest of the sentence.

If such a word, phrase, etc., does *not* readily make sense, it is somehow incorrect or misplaced, and can not be disposed of as an *independent element*.

Among *Independent Elements* are to be noted the following:

(1) **The Parenthesis.**—A parenthesis is a phrase, clause, or sentence included within a sentence that is complete without it; as,

Know then this truth (enough for man to know),
Virtue alone is happiness below.

POPE *Essay on Man*, ep. iv, l. 309.

The two curved marks () used before and after the injected words are called in the plural parentheses. In place of these curves, dashes, or even commas, are sometimes substituted.

The test of the parenthesis is that it may be omitted without injury to the sentence including it. The parenthesis is much less used now than formerly, it being held preferable to introduce the added matter in a separate clause or in a separate sentence.

(2) **A noun or, rarely, a pronoun used in direct address** is an independent element; as, *Charles*, you are wanted at home; *Ho, you!* Where are you going? Similarly a noun or pronoun used in an exclamation; as, *The Niobe* of nations! there she stands.

(3) A noun or pronoun used for emphasis, exclamation, etc., is an independent element; as, *The north* and the *south*, thou hast created them; *He* that hath, to him shall be given. Here we could say "Thou hast created the north and the south," or "To him that hath shall be given"; but these statements would be much less vivid and emphatic.

(4) **The Nominative Absolute.**—A noun or pronoun used with a participle and not itself the subject of a finite verb, nor the object of any verb, participle, or preposition, is said to be in the *nominative case absolute*, or to be the *nominative absolute*.

Consider the two following sentences:

He being dead yet speaketh. *Heb.* 11:4.

I being in the way, the Lord led me. *Gen.* 24:28.

In the first sentence, "He" is regularly in the nominative case as the subject of the verb "speaketh"—"He—speaketh."

In the second sentence "I" can not be the subject of the verb "led," which has its own subject, "Lord," "the Lord LED me"; the pronoun "I" thus stands independently in the sentence as a nominative without a verb, and is said to be in the *nominative absolute* with the participle "being."

Similarly we may say, "The DAY *having* come, the money was paid," where "day" is not the subject of the verb "was paid," which has its own subject, "money"; "day" thus stands independently in the sentence, in the *nominative absolute*, with the participle "having come."

The participle in such an expression is used as an adjective, and the noun with which it agrees, as "time" or "business," has no predicate verb. Hence, such an expression is a *phrase*, and not a clause; yet it has often the effect of a conditional clause. Thus, instead of "The day having come,"

we might say, "As the day had come," or, "When the day came," with no special change of meaning.*

CAUTION.—A participle so used should as a general rule have a definite subject *expressed in the same phrase*. Otherwise the use of the participle may give a false or ridiculous meaning. Thus:

"Not *expecting* us, the horses had been turned out to pasture, and were difficult to catch."

Here the only noun with which "expecting" can agree is "horses," which makes the statement grotesque. The writer should have expressed the noun which he probably had in mind; thus: "Our *friends* not expecting us, the horses had been turned out," etc.

The noun or pronoun may occasionally be omitted, when the connection makes the meaning clear (see CAUTION above). Thus, "*Speaking* of home, I remember, etc."; that is, "*I* or *we* speaking," equivalent to "While (*or as*) I am speaking," "While we are speaking"; "*Admitting* this, the argument still holds"; that is, "*I* admitting," "if *I* admit," etc.

(5) **Many infinitive phrases:** as, *to tell the truth; to speak plainly; to cut the matter short; to be brief;* etc.

(6) **Various adverbs,** used often elliptically, as: *Away!* (equivalent to "go away"); *Up! Forward!* (Compare INTERJECTIONS, p. 221.)

Yes and *No*, used in answer to questions, are independent elements, each being equivalent to a whole sentence; as, "Will you go?" "Yes" (equivalent to "I will go").

(7) **Many Prepositional Phrases;** as, *for example; for instance; in fact; in truth; in a word; under the circumstances;* etc. (See also INTERJECTIONS, p. 221.)

*NOTE.—The phrase containing the nominative absolute, even when used at the beginning of a sentence, has ordinarily the effect of an adverb modifying the predicate verb; as, *The company having departed*, the doors were closed. Here the phrase "The company having departed" is used like an adverb of cause, stating the reason why "the doors were closed."

(8) **Interjections.**—All interjections are considered as *independent elements*, not grammatically connected with the other words of a sentence, tho they may deeply affect the meaning of the whole. The exclamation attributed to Wellington at Waterloo, "*Oh, that Blücher or night would come!*" loses most of its force if we omit the introductory interjection "*Oh.*"

Various parts of speech, as nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs, when used as exclamations, to express surprise or sudden emotion or intense feeling of any kind, have the force of interjections; as, *well! hark! shame! good! what! Up! Forward! Away!* An exclamatory prepositional phrase may be used as an *independent element* with interjectional force; as, *Oh, for rest and peace!*

EXERCISE

Find and explain the nominative absolute in each of the following sentences; give in each instance the essential subject of the sentence.

She being down,
I have the placing of the British crown.
SHAKESPEARE *Cymbeline*, act iii, sc. 5.

Thou therefore also taste,
Lest, thou not tasting, different degree
Disjoin us.
MILTON *Paradise Lost*, bk. 9, l. 881.

Why should he then protect our sovereign,
He being of age to govern of himself?
SHAKESPEARE *II King Henry IV*, act i, sc. 1.

Six frozen winters spent,
Return with welcome home from banishment.
SHAKESPEARE *Rich. II*, act i, sc. 3.

THE INVERTED CONSTRUCTION

The *Inverted Construction*, or *Inversion*, is the use of words in some other than the regular or usual order, generally for the sake of emphasis or clearness.

Here it will seem to some persons that we are introducing a complication that destroys all simplicity and certainty. They are ready to ask, "If the subject does not always come before the verb, and if the object of the verb or the predicate nominative does not always follow the verb, how can we be sure which is which?" They feel that *inversion* leaves everything "up in the air," and reduces it to "guess-work."

On the contrary, *inversion* is one of the most common and familiar things in English speech. Every child understands it. It is used by every one who asks a question. The direct statement is,

(subject)	(verb)	(pred. nom.)
This <i>boy</i>	IS	your <i>brother</i> .

As soon as we ask a question, we change the order of the terms, and say,

(verb)	(subject)	(pred. nom.)
IS	this <i>boy</i>	your <i>brother</i> ?

That is *inversion*. It is not mysterious, but is instantly understood by that simple exercise of thought which we call "common sense." Some other forms of *inversion* require more study, but are readily understood or explained by clear and attentive thinking. Some of the chief instances of *inversion* are listed below.

(1) **Subject and Verb.**—The verb or auxiliary may by inversion precede the subject:

(a) In interrogation (see p. 117).

(b) In the imperative sentence, where the subject, if expressed, follows the verb or the first auxiliary; as, *Do you begin*.

(c) In exclamatory sentences; as, What visions *have* I seen!

(d) In introducing a quotation; as, "This is for you," *said* HE.

(e) With the subjunctive mode; as, *Had* I *known* (see p. 81).

(f) In relative clauses; as, He soon reached a neat cottage in which *lived* the WIDOW.

(g) In negative statements; as, Never *was* there a MIND keener and more critical; Not only *does* HE *master* it, but he makes it practical; Neither *was* I *offended*.

(h) In sentences expressing a comparison; as, The longer he toiled, the more hopeless *seemed* the TASK.

(i) With adverbs or other designations of place; as, Here *is* a TELEGRAM; On that hill *is* a fine MANSION.

(k) See under ADJECTIVE AND NOUN, below.

(2) **Subject and Object.**—For the regular order of words in English, see THE NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE CASES, pp. 17; 196; POSITION OF THE DIRECT OBJECT, pp. 200-201.

(a) By inversion, however, a noun which is the direct object may sometimes precede the noun which is the subject when no confusion of thought will be so produced; as, "This land the king gave to his favorite"; there can be here not a moment's doubt that "king" is the *subject* of the verb, and "land" the object; it was the *king* who *gave* the *land*.

(b) A relative or interrogative pronoun which is the object of a verb regularly precedes that verb; as "This is the man *whom* they sent." Evidently "they" is the subject of the verb "sent," and "whom" the *object* of the verb; hence we use "whom," and not "who," just as if the order of words had been, "they sent *whom*."

Adjective and Noun.—(See POSITION OF THE ADJECTIVE, p. 59; POSITION OF THE ARTICLE, p. 73.)

The *predicate adjective* may, however, come first in the sentence by inversion; as, *Certain* it is that this is the field. Such inversion of the predicate adjective often carries with it the inversion of subject and verb; as, *Wise are* all his ways. (Compare SUBJECT and VERB, p. 222.)

Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases that really modify some element of the predicate may, by inversion, precede the subject; as, *There* appears to be your error; *Here* he studied grammar; *Of fuel* they had plenty; *To these peculiarities* Dr. Martoun added another.

Such inversion is very common with the *nominative absolute* (see p. 219), which is often put for emphasis at or near the beginning of the sentence, even when it really modifies the predicate verb.

Where a number of adverbial elements would overload the concluding portion of the sentence, they may be variously distributed so that the mind follows them without weariness or confusion and gathers their united meaning at the close.

These inversions and others that might be added are especially abundant in poetry.

The important point to note is, that in numerous cases it is not possible to cut a sentence in two at some middle point, assigning all before that point to the subject and all after it to the predicate. The *meaning and mutual relations of the words* must be the guide to their classification either in subject or predicate in the construction of the sentence.

COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

Two or more simple sentences may be combined to form a longer sentence, which is still a sentence, tho not limited to one essential subject and one essential predicate.

To use only simple sentences—important as they are—would give our speech or writing a very choppy effect. Thus: "The sun has risen. The birds are singing"; or "I called. He was not at home." We find it oftener pleasanter to say, "The sun has risen *and* the birds are singing"; or,

"He was not at home *when* I called." The original simple sentences are there, but they are combined in each case into a longer sentence, which we call, according to its structure, *compound* or *complex*.

The simple sentences so combined are called *clauses* of the sentence formed by their combination. A clause is a simple sentence which is joined with some other simple sentence.

Thus all that we have learned about the simple sentence when used alone is the foundation for understanding simple sentences in their combinations which are called *Compound Sentences* and *Complex Sentences*.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

When two or more simple sentences, no one of which is dependent upon the other or others, are united, the longer sentence formed by their union is a *compound sentence*.

Thus, "The autumn has come" is an independent sentence; it is complete by itself. "The apples are ripe" is also an independent sentence; so is the sentence "The leaves are falling."

We may combine these three simple, independent sentences into one longer sentence which shall include them all, as follows:

The autumn has come, and the apples are ripe, and the leaves are falling.

This longer sentence is a *compound sentence*.

Each of the simple sentences composing it is now a *clause* of the compound sentence, and each of these clauses is a *member* (p. 162) of the compound sentence.

Each clause is an *independent clause*, since no one of them is dependent upon another. Some prefer to call each such clause a *principal clause*, in distinction from the *subordinate clause* which is found in the Complex Sentence.

We may make this compound sentence a little briefer by omitting the first "and." It will then read:

The autumn has come, the apples are ripe, and the leaves are falling.

Conjunctions Omitted

Where several clauses of a compound sentence are connected by the same conjunction, the conjunction may be, and commonly is, omitted, except before the final clause.

Since the members of a compound sentence are principal or independent clauses, no one of which is subordinate to any other, they are said to be *coordinate*, or of the same rank.

Coordinate Conjunctions.—The coordinate clauses of a compound sentence are connected by *coordinate conjunctions*, as *also, and, both, but, either, neither, nor, or, then*.

Various adverbs, as *accordingly, else, further, furthermore, so, too, yet*, are similarly used, and are often classed as coordinate conjunctions.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

When two or more simple sentences, *only one of which is independent*, while the other or others are *dependent*, are combined, the longer sentence formed by their union is called a *Complex Sentence*.

The principal sentence is then called the *principal clause*, and each subordinate sentence is called a *subordinate clause* of the complex sentence.

Subordinate clauses in a complex sentence are joined to the principal clause by *subordinate conjunctions* (p. 227), *relative pronouns* (p. 43; 228), or by certain adverbs known as *relative or conjunctive adverbs* (p. 132).

(1) **Subordinate Conjunctions.**—To understand the use of such connectives, note the two following sentences:

These flowers are beautiful.

They are very small.

Each is a principal or independent sentence. Now we may use a subordinate conjunction which will indicate that the second sentence is subordinate, and write:

These flowers are beautiful, *tho* they are very small.

The sentence is then a *complex sentence*, showing by its form that the second sentence (or clause) is *subordinate* to the first. The conjunction "*tho*" makes the second sentence *seem* subordinate, as we mean it to be.

The *Subordinate Conjunctions* most in use are the following: *altho*, *as*, *because*, *except*, *for*, *however*, *if*, *lest*, *provided*, *save*, *seeing*, *since*, *so*, *still*, *than*, *that*, *then*, *therefore*, *tho*, *unless*, *whereas*, *whereat*, *wherefor*, *wherever* (*where'er*), *whether*, *while*, *without*.

Various *conjunctive* or *relative adverbs* are used with the effect of subordinate conjunctions, as the following:

How, *now*, *thence*, *when*, *whence*, *whenever*, *where*, *whereby*, *wherefore*, *wherein*, *whereof*, *whereon*, *whereupon*, *whither*, *why*.

Some of these adverbs have the full effect of conjunctions, and are often so classed. Some other relative adverbs have the conjunctive effect; as, *after*, *before*, *till*, *until*, etc.

***Than* as a Subordinate Conjunction.**—*Than* (see pp. 68; 148) often seems to connect *words*, but, as used after comparatives, is now regarded as connecting *clauses*, a verb being always understood.*

A noun or pronoun following *than* may be either in the nominative or objective case according to the verb supplied. Thus:

He likes you better than *I* [like you];
He likes you better than [he likes] *me*.

The sentences "He likes you better than *I*" and "He likes you better than *me*" are both correct, but there is a great difference in their meaning. The case to be used after *than*

* NOTE.—The phrase "*than whom*" is an established idiom used by the best writers, as Milton, and seems to indicate a former prepositional use of *than*.

may always be known by mentally supplying a verb to complete the sense, as in the sentences given above.

CAUTION.—An adjective in the positive degree with *as* or *so* should not be used with an adjective in the comparative degree followed by or requiring *than*. Thus:

He is *as* tall or taller *than* I;
He is not *so* old but stronger *than* I.

These sentences are incorrect. After the positive forms, "tall" and "old," *as* should be supplied (see CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, p. 149); after the comparatives, "taller" and "stronger," *than* should be supplied (p. 68). The sentences would then read:

He is *as* tall *as*, or taller *than* I;
He is not *so* old *as*, but stronger *than* I.

But these constructions are harsh and disagreeable. It is better to say:

He is *as* tall *as* I, or taller;
He is not *so* old *as* I, but stronger.

(2) **Relative Pronouns.**—A clause connected by a relative pronoun is always a subordinate clause.

A relative pronoun is always a part of the clause which it connects, being either (a) the subject, or (b) the object of the predicate verb of the subordinate clause, or (c) the object of a preposition belonging to the subordinate clause, or (d) a possessive modifying some noun or noun-element of the subordinate clause. Thus:

- (a) This is the man *who* sent the message;
- (b) I found the man *whom* I was seeking;
- (c) He was the man from *whom* I received the message;
- (d) The man *whose* message I received met me at the station.

Verbs in Relative Clauses.—Since the antecedent of the relative pronoun *who* or *which* is usually expressed, and the person and number of the relative are known by

the person and number of the antecedent, we have the following simple rule:

RULE.—When a relative pronoun is the subject of a verb, the verb takes the person and number of the antecedent of the relative pronoun.*

For the gender, person, and number of a pronoun following a relative in the same clause, see under PRONOUNS AND ANTECEDENTS, p. 57 (2).

Who or Whom.—Since all the relative pronouns, except *who*, have the objective precisely like the nominative, no perplexity is found in their use, and no mistake of form is possible. *Who* has, however, a distinct objective form, *whom*, the use of which is perplexing to many persons. Note the two following sentences:

Is this the man *who* was at the door?

Is this the man *who* you found at the door?

In the first sentence, “*who*” is the subject of the verb “*was*”; therefore the nominative is correctly used.

In the second sentence, “*who*” can not be the subject of the verb “*found*,” because that has its own subject, “*you*.” “*Who*” is therefore incorrectly used. The relative in the clause considered is the *object* of the verb “*found*.” Therefore *whom* is the form required:

Is this the man *whom* you found at the door?

RULE.—When the relative is the subject of the predicate verb in its clause, use *who*; when it is the object of that verb, or of a preposition, use *whom*.

CAUTION.—A special perplexity arises here, when some

* NOTE.—In the older style the antecedent is sometimes omitted. The relative is then always understood to be of the third person and of the number indicated by the verb or connected words; as, “*Who* steals my purse steals trash”; “*Who* praise themselves invite dispraise”; that is, the *person* or *persons* “*who*.”

parenthetical phrase or clause intervenes between the relative and its verb; as,

I met two men $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{who} \\ \textit{whom} \end{array} \right\}$, I believe, were policemen.

Which is right? That is easily settled by leaving out the parenthetical clause; then the sentence must read,

I met two men *who* — — were policemen.

It would be impossible to say "*whom* were policemen."

On the other hand, consider the following sentence:

They were seeking a man *who*, I believe, they found.

Omit "I believe," and we see at once that we could not say "*who* they found"; we must say "*whom* they found"; hence the sentence, as given, is incorrect, and should be,

They were seeking a man *whom*, I believe, they found.

Try every such sentence by *omitting the parenthetical phrase or clause*; the relative that would be used if that phrase or clause were omitted is the relative that should be used when that phrase or clause is retained.

***Who* or *Whom* as Interrogatives.**—The rules for the use of *who* or *whom* as *interrogatives* are practically the same as for the corresponding *relatives*. Thus:

(Subject of verb) *Who* invited you?

(Object of verb) *Whom* did you invite?

(Object of preposition) By *whom* were you invited?

Similarly in indirect questions:

He asked *who* invited us;

He asked *whom* we invited;

He asked by *whom* we were invited.

(See also CLAUSES WITH *WHOEVER*, etc., p. 232.)

CLAUSES AS ELEMENTS

Any subordinate clause of a complex sentence may be considered as a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*; or, more strictly, as a *noun-element*, an *adjective-element*, or an *adverb-element*.

Clauses thus considered as elements are called *noun-clauses*, *adjective-clauses*, and *adverb-clauses*.*

(1) **The Noun-Clause.**—A *noun-clause* (that is, a clause used as a noun) may be:

(a) The subject of a sentence; as, *That you approve the plan* satisfies me.

The entire clause "That you approve the plan" is the only subject that the verb "satisfies" can have. Observe that "you" can not be the subject of "satisfies," because it is of different person and number, and is itself the subject of the verb "approve"; "plan" is the object of the verb "approve," and can not be the subject of the verb "satisfies."

(b) The predicate nominative; as, To be happy is *all that most persons desire*.

(c) The object of a verb or of a preposition; as, I expect *that the train will arrive on time*; They were eager for *what had been promised them*.

(d) An appositive; as, The proof *that the money was paid* is conclusive; I depend upon your promise *that you will come*.

(2) **The Adjective-Clause.**—A clause that modifies a noun, as an adjective might do, is called an *adjective-clause*; as, I know the price *that he asks for the property*.

(3) **The Adverb-Clause.**—A clause that modifies the

* NOTE.—Since we say "noun-clause" and "adjective-clause," it is best to be consistent and say "adverb-clause" rather than "adverbial clause."

meaning of a verb, adjective, or adverb is called an *adverb-clause*; as, I will come *when I am needed*.

Here the clause "when I am needed" modifies the verb "come," just as an adverb might do.

Adverb-clauses are used to denote *place, time, manner, degree, cause, consequence, purpose, condition, concession, etc.*

Clauses with *Whoever*, etc.—The compound relatives, *whoever, whosoever*, etc., often occasion perplexity from failure to observe that the real sentence-element is *not the pronoun alone, but the clause containing it*.

Whoever steps over that line will be shot.

Here, the subject of the verb "will be shot" is *not the pronoun*, "whoever," but the *whole clause*, "whoever steps over that line." That clause is a noun-clause, and is the subject of the principal verb, "will be shot." *Within the clause itself* the pronoun "whoever" is the subject of the verb "steps."

Give the job to $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{whoever} \\ \textit{whomever} \end{array} \right\}$ can do it best,

which of these forms is right? Is either right? Let us ask who is to have the job? The answer is "whoever can do it best." All these words go together to describe the successful applicant. The *whole clause* is one noun-element, and is the object of the preposition "to." *Within the clause* "whoever" is in the nominative case as the subject of the verb "can do," and the sentence properly is, "Give the job to *whoever can do it best*."

[As a matter of style, it is best to avoid such forms, and to say, for instance, "Give the job to *the person who can do it best*." Then the difficulty disappears.]

REMARKS

In a complex sentence, one subordinate clause may be dependent upon another subordinate clause; as, I met him politely, because he had come to bring me the book *which he had promised me*.

Here the relative clause "which he had promised me" is dependent upon the subordinate clause "because he had come to bring me the book."

A speaker or writer, however, should be careful not to accumulate subordinate clauses so as to make a sentence clumsy or difficult to understand; as, "On our way to town we met a wagon, which was drawn by a horse which was old and infirm, which was driven by a man who wore a straw hat and a blue shirt, which were ill-adapted to the day, which was very cold."

To Parse a Subordinate Clause

1. Treat the whole clause as an element of the complex sentence, telling whether it is a *noun-clause*, an *adjective-clause*, or an *adverb-clause*.

2. Then, treat the clause by itself as a simple sentence, and parse each word it contains as an element of that simple sentence.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES

Any or every member of a compound sentence may be complex.

That is to say, any or every one of the principal clauses which are joined to form the compound sentence may be modified by a subordinate clause.

A compound sentence that contains one or more complex members is called a *compound-complex sentence*.

Thus, consider the following sentence:

I dropped my pen; *and* listened to the wind
That sang of trees uptorn and vessels tost.

WORDSWORTH *Sonnet*.

This is a compound sentence. The two principal clauses are "I dropped my pen," and "[I] listened to the wind"; these are connected by the coordinate conjunction "and," forming the compound sentence "I dropped my pen *and* listened to the wind."

But the second principal clause, "[I] listened to the wind," is modified by the subordinate clause "that sang, etc."

Hence the second member of the compound sentence is a complex sentence, and the whole sentence may be called *compound-complex*.

In the following compound sentence, both members are complex, the subordinate clause in each member being printed in italics:

I know not *how long or short my life may be,*|| but
I do know *that it is my duty to make it good and
helpful to others to the utmost of my power.*

TO ANALYZE A SENTENCE

Sentence Analysis now becomes a very simple matter.

(1) Ascertain whether the sentence is a *simple sentence*, having but *one essential subject* (simple or compound) and *one essential predicate* (simple or compound).

If so, treat the elements of that simple sentence separately according to the rules and principles stated under the SIMPLE SENTENCE.

If participial, prepositional, or other phrases are included in the simple sentence, treat each phrase first solidly as *an element of the simple sentence*, showing its grammatical relation as a phrase. Then take the *words* of that phrase separately, and show their relation to one another, as *single words*.

(2) If the sentence is found to have more than one essential subject and more than one essential predicate, separate the clauses so formed, and decide whether they constitute a *Compound* or a *Complex Sentence*.

(3) Show the relation of the clauses to each other, as *Coordinate* in the Compound Sentence (p. 225), or *Principal* and *Subordinate* in the Complex Sentence (p. 226).

(4) Analyze *each clause* of the Compound or Complex Sentence as a *Simple Sentence* according to the rules and principles given for the Simple Sentence.

EXERCISE

Analyze the following sentences as *Compound* or *Complex*, first by *clauses*; then by *words*, treating each *clause* by itself as a *simple sentence*.

I can look sharp as well as another, and let me alone to keep the cobwebs out of my eyes.—CERVANTES *Don Quixote*, pt. ii, ch. 33.

Whatever comes from the brain carries the hue of the place it came from, and whatever comes from the heart carries the heat and color of its birthplace.—O. W. HOLMES *The Professor at the Breakfast Table*, ch. 6.

Land of my sires! what mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy rugged strand?
SCOTT *Lay of the Last Minstrel*, can. vi, st. 2.

He is the freeman whom the truth makes free,
And all are slaves besides.
COWPER *The Task*, bk. v, l. 733.

The greatest truths are the simplest; and so are the greatest men.—J. C. and A. W. HARE *Guesses at Truth*.

That is the best government which desires to make the people happy, and knows how to make them happy.

MACAULAY *On Mitford's History of Greece*, 1824.

He is no wise man that will quit a certainty for an uncertainty.—SAMUEL JOHNSON *The Idler*. No. 57.

I chatter, chatter as I flow
 To join the brimming river,
 For men may come and men may go,
 But I go on forever.

TENNYSON *The Brook.*

Mysterious Flood—that through the silent sands
 Hast wandered, century on century,
 Watering the length of great Egyptian lands,
 Which were not, but for thee.

BAYARD TAYLOR *To the Nile.*

More helpful than all wisdom is one draught of simple human pity that will not forsake us.—GEORGE ELIOT *The Mill on the Floss*, bk. viii, ch. 1.

Where law ends, there tyranny begins.—WILLIAM PITT (Earl of Chatham) *Case of Wilkes. Speech.* Jan. 9, 1770.

Morality, when vigorously alive, sees farther than intellect, and provides unconsciously for intellectual difficulties.—FROUDE *Short Studies on Great Subjects. Divus Cæsar.*

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